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THE DEVELOPMENT OF A MASTER TEACHER TRAINING CURRICULUM FOR TEACHERS OF OCCUPATIONAL LEVEL TRAINING PROGRAMS, FINAL REPORT.

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*CURRICULUM DEVELOPMENT, *COURSE ORGANIZATION, *VOCATIONAL EDUCATION, GRADUATE STUDY, *INSERVICE TEACHER EDUCATION, *DISADVANTAGED YOUTH, CONSULTANTS, DEGREES (TITLES), NEW BRUNSWICK, NEW JERSEY

A CURRICULUM AND COURSE OF STUDY WERE DEVELOPED TO PROVIDE GRADUATE TRAINING FOR TEACHERS OF DISADVANTAGED YOUTH. AN INTERDISCIPLINARY COMMITTEE OF SPECIALISTS WAS ORGANIZED TO DEVELOP BACKGROUND MATERIALS AND TO EVALUATE AND REFINE THE WORK OF ITS MEMBERS. PRACTITIONERS WERE ALSO INVITED TO PREPARE PAPERS ON VARIOUS ASPECTS OF STUDENT-TEACHER NEEDS, SKILLS, AND CHARACTERISTICS. THE CURRICULUM WAS DESIGNED TO PROVIDE TEACHER TRAINING AT THE MASTER S DEGREE LEVEL. IT WAS BASED ON A PROGRESSION FROM ORIENTATION TO CONCEPTUALIZATION, AND FROM EXPERIENCING TO INTEGRATION OF EXPERIENCES. INCLUDED WERE PRESENTATIONS ON (1) CURRICULUM, (2) ORIENTATION WORKSHOP, (3) SOCIAL PSYCHOLOGY OF THE DISADVANTAGED, (4) SEMINAR IN URBAN SOCIETY, (5) FIELD EXPERIENCE, (6) SEMINAR IN LEARNING, DEVELOPMENT, AND MEASUREMENT, (7) EDUCATIONAL PROCESSES FOR TEACHING THE DISADVANTAGED YOUTH, (8) EDUCATIONAL PRACTICUM FOR TEACHING DISADVANTAGED YOUTH, (9) SEMINAR ON PROFESSIONAL ISSUES, AND (10) INTEGRATING OPTION. RECOMMENDATIONS WERE THAT THOSE IMPLEMENTING THE PROGRAM BE COGNIZANT OF THE NEED TO DEVELOP ADEQUATE EVALUATION PROCEDURES. (RS)

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U. S. DEPARTMENT OF HEALTH, EDUCATION AND WELFARE
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FINAL REPORT

THE DEVELOPMENT OF A MASTER TEACHER TRAINING CURRICULUM FOR TEACHERS OF OCCUPATIONAL LEVEL TRAINING PROGRAMS

RUTGERS - THE STATE UNIVERSITY
NEW BRUNSWICK, NEW JERSEY

Initiated by

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Office of Education

May 31, 1966

RUTGERS · THE STATE UNIVERSITY

GRADUATE SCHOOL OF EDUCATION
DEPARTMENT OF VOCATIONAL-TECHNICAL EDUCATION

10 SEMINARY PLACE
NEW BRUNSWICK, NEW JERSEY
CH 7-7636, CH 7-1766 EXT. 6440

May 31, 1966

Dr. Otto P. Legg, Research Specialist
Educational Resources Development Branch
Division of Vocational and Technical Education
U. S. Office of Education
Department of Health, Education, and Welfare
Washington, D. C. 20202

Dear Dr. Legg:

The following is the final report for Contract OE-6-85-047, Project 375 entitled,"The Development of a Master Teacher Training Curriculum for Teachers of Occupational Level Training Programs."

The report consists of two sections: (1) an edited copy of the papers presented at two Colloquia held December 15-16, 1965, and January 25, 1966; and (2) the curriculum and courses of study developed for the Master's program.

A logical next step in this project would be the implementation and evaluation of the curriculum developed under the auspices of this research project.

It has been a pleasure to have the opportunity to work with the U. S. Office of Education in developing this Master's degree teacher training curriculum for occupational level training programs.

Very truly yours,

John L. O'Brian

John L. O'Brian
Principal Investigator

JLOB:gl

ACKNOWLEDGMENT

Many individuals have cooperated in this research project. Their enthusiastic support and cooperation have provided invaluable service and assistance, and their efforts have contributed immeasurably to the project. Special recognition is due to Dr. John J. O'Neill, Dean of the Graduate School of Education, and Dr. Carl J. Schaefer, Chairman, Department of Vocational-Technical Education, Rutgers - The State University.

The dedication of the Curriculum Development Committee, who in the final analysis developed the materials herein presented, is greatly appreciated.

CURRICULUM DEVELOPMENT COMMITTEE

Dr. Arnold Buchheimer - City University of New York
Dr. William R. Carriker - The Pennsylvania State University
Dr. Donald Maley - University of Maryland
Dr. William Phillips, Jr. - Rutgers - The State University
Dr. Lawrence Plotkin - City College
Dr. Bruce Tuckman - Rutgers - The State University
Mr. Leonard Zeitz - Hospital Review Planning Council of Southern New York

Appreciation is also extended to those who authored the working papers included in the attached publication. Contributors of papers, in addition to the Curriculum Development Committee, include the following:

Mr. Sidney Chernak - Baltimore Public Schools
Mr. Marcus A. Foster - Philadelphia Public Schools
Dr. Julian Roberts - Yeshiva University
Mr. Paul W. K. Springer - Rochester Public Schools
Dr. Doxey Wilkerson - Yeshiva University

Special recognition must be made of the help and consideration given by members of the Department of Vocational-Technical Education of Rutgers - The State University. To mention the names of all persons making a valuable contribution to this study would entail much too extensive a list for this acknowledgment.

John L. O'Brian
Principal Investigator

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BACKGROUND

A critical problem facing education today, and one which vocational education can play a leading and prominent role in solving, deals with providing a realistic educational program for youth with special needs.

The necessity for specially designed programs for youth with special needs has not been obvious to educators or such programs would have been developed. Recently the need has become obvious and remedial programs such as the MDTA programs for youth, Job Corps, youth services of the public employment service, Neighborhood Youth Corps, and the Community Action Program, etc., have been inaugurated. With this recognition has come the realization that we must have specially trained personnel to work with these youth. Teachers, counselors, administrators, and other supporting personnel with middle-class values and lacking understanding of the youth they are trying to serve are not able to operate at a maximal level of efficiency. Best intentions cannot be successful if personnel is not available to carry out the goals and objectives set forth for these programs.

Remedial programs need to be replaced with preventative programs. This responsibility must be and is being accepted by our public schools. The problem facing the educator is multiphased. Included among these problems are finances, curriculum, and teachers. Recent Federal legislation should provide adequate stimulus and aid to overcome the financial problem. Problems related to curriculum and teachers can be resolved through research.

PURPOSE

The primary purpose of this research study was to develop a curriculum with the corresponding courses of study for a Master's degree program to prepare teachers to teach youth with special needs.

In the process of developing the above curriculum and courses of study the following purposes were realized. These are enumerated in the papers which are included in the Appendix of this report.

1. The characteristics of the youth with special needs
2. The educational, psychological, and sociological needs of the youth with special needs
3. The skills, knowledges, and understanding needed by teachers and other supporting personnel to work effectively with the youth with special needs
4. Methods of teaching that will be effective with the youth with special needs

5. Types of internship experiences that will be effective for teachers of the youth with special needs

These findings are reflected in the curriculum and courses of study developed by the curriculum development committee.

PROCEDURE

In order to achieve the purposes of this study a multifaceted approach was used. First, a curriculum development committee was organized. The members of this committee are listed under the Acknowledgments section of this report. The function of this committee was to develop the curriculum and the corresponding courses of study. This committee was interdisciplinary in scope making it possible for the disciplines of sociology, social psychology, guidance, special education, vocational trade and industrial education, anthropology, and educational psychology to focus on the problem.

To prepare necessary background for the development of the curriculum each committee member prepared a paper indicating the contribution his discipline could make to the preparation of teachers for youth with special needs. Practitioners were also invited to prepare papers focusing on: (1) a description of the program developed for their students with special needs, (2) characteristics of the youth with special needs that constitute their student body, (3) the needs of these youth that must be met by the school, (4) personal characteristics that teachers of these youth must possess, and (5) the skills, knowledges, and understanding needed by the teachers of these youth. These papers were presented at two Colloquia to which the educational community was invited.

To round out the background development of the committee, each member visited at least one program for the youth with special needs. Some members also visited conferences dealing with the youth with special needs. The purpose of these activities was to develop background and to weld the committee into a team capable of working harmoniously toward the objectives of the study.

The committee then met periodically at the Rutgers campus to evaluate and refine the developmental work completed by each member.

The resulting curriculum and courses of study represent a synthesis of the interdisciplinary thinking regarding the problem of preparing teachers for the youth with special needs. The results of these efforts are recorded in a following section of this report.

ASSUMPTIONS

A number of assumptions were made upon which the curriculum was based. It was assumed that the candidate: (1) would hold the baccalaureate plus teaching experience, (2) would be competent in the subject matter taught, (3) would desire to teach the disadvantaged, (4) generally would come from a middle-class culture. In addition, it was assumed that: (1) the term "youth with special needs" was an all inclusive term referring to youth who are sometimes called disadvantaged, culturally disadvantaged, socio-economically handicapped, etc., (2) that a greater portion of the youth with special needs come from the inner city (the specific content of the courses of study reflects this assumption. However, the underlying concepts upon which this curriculum is based are germane to other populations. Institutions serving populations such as Mexican-American, the migrant worker, the American Indian, and those who constitute the population of Appalachia can utilize the curriculum by relating specific applications that are pertinent to the population in question).

RESULTS

The curriculum described in the following pages is aimed at preparing teachers to work with the youth with special needs. The curriculum evolved out of the efforts of the curriculum development committee. Those studying the curriculum will notice that it has a progression and integrity of its own consistent with educational theory and current interdisciplinary thinking regarding the disadvantaged. An underlying premise upon which these efforts are based is that vocational teachers, as well as academic teachers, have neither the conceptual understandings of teaching the disadvantaged nor do they have the background and experiences to understand the milieu in which these youth grow up, live, and survive. The proposed curriculum is designed to give the prospective trainee at the Master's level:

1. An orientation period consisting of sensitizing experiences with the populations that are different from those with which the typical middle-class teacher would have direct contact.
2. An understanding of the characteristics of the urban poor.
3. Basic sociological, pyschological, educational, anthropological, and literary concepts dealing with youth who come to school from the inner city.
4. Direct experiences in understanding the culture of the inner city.
5. Conceptual learning consisting of basic concepts in psychology, sociology, and anthropology dealing with urban society race relations and general interaction between man and society.

   Another facet of this conceptual phase is more directly psychological, dealing with learning theory, psycho-social development, and measurement.

6. An integrating experience that is composed of selected educational processes such as teaching methodology, program development, curriculum development, and evaluation—with special emphasis on teaching the disadvantaged youth.
7. A supervised teaching experience with a student population which is both culturally disadvantaged and educationally limited.
8. A supervised work experience under the direction of a professional worker. The purpose of this aspect is to give the student an understanding of agency structure and agency programs dealing with the poor and the disadvantaged.
9. A seminar type course that provides opportunity to integrate and relate issues that have grown out of the experiences of the curriculum, to the field of vocational education in general, and to the disadvantaged in particular.
10. An opportunity: (1) to investigate a problem related to the disadvantaged and to report this in a Master's Paper, or (2) to evaluate the total experiences received in the Master's program and to report this in an Evaluation Paper. Both of these activities will aid the individual to integrate the experiences and knowledge gained in the program and will enable him to apply them to his own professional improvement.

To recapitulate, the curriculum is based on a progression from orientation to conceptualization and from experiencing to integration of experiences. It will be noted, as seen from the pictorial representation of the curriculum given below, that the student is always in the field when he is in the classroom. At the time he is in the classroom he will be able to relate his learning to direct experiences, and he will be able to discuss these experiences with professional people responsible for his learning. Furthermore, he will be introduced systematically, under direct supervision, to the culture of the disadvantaged. As his experiences and learnings evolve it is hoped that he will develop the kinds of attitudes as well as the kinds of skills which make him a master teacher for the youth with special needs.

It should be noted that the efforts of the committee resulted in a curriculum which consists of cognitive courses and/or seminars and in field type experiences. Each of the field experiences is designed to provide the student with a definite type of orientation and involvement with the problems of the disadvantaged. The cognitive aspects of the curriculum are interdisciplinary in scope and require the involvement of an interdisciplinary team approach to their teaching. This is necessary because of the complexity of the problems of the disadvantaged. A complete understanding of the disadvantaged and their problems cannot be gained by utilizing an approach where each discipline, as an entity, focuses on the disadvantaged and then at some distant date an attempt made to integrate and combine contributions available from these disciplines. This curriculum is unique because of its great commitment to the interdisciplinary approach of studying the disadvantaged.

The curriculum, as it finally emerged, is appropriate for training all teachers who will work with the disadvantaged youth. Its application is broad and extends beyond use for just the teacher of occupational level training programs.

From an optimal point of view, the curriculum should be presented in the sequence and combinations shown on the schematic illustrated on the next page. The courses of study comprising the curriculum follow the schematic.

MASTER'S DEGREE PROGRAM FOR TEACHERS OF DISADVANTAGED YOUTH

THE CURRICULUM

SUMMER SESSION

Orientation Workshop
(Three Credits)

FALL SEMESTER

The Social Psychology of the Disadvantaged
(Four Credits)

Seminar in Urban Society
(Four Credits)

Field Experience
(Four Credits)

SPRING SEMESTER

Seminar in Learning, Development, and Measurement
(Four Credits)

Educational Processes for Teaching the Disadvantaged
(Four Credits)

Educational Practicum for Teaching Disadvantaged Youth
(Four Credits)

SUMMER SESSION

Professional Issues Seminar
(Three Credits)

Integrating Option
Master's Project or **Evaluative Paper**
(Three Credits) **(No Credit)**

ORIENTATION WORKSHOP
(Three Credits)

Workshop Description—The Orientation Workshop is a combination of practical experiences conducted in the environment of the disadvantaged along with opportunity for reading, viewing films and plays, and listening to records. These activities are designed to sensitize the student to the culture of the disadvantaged. Opportunity will be provided for the students to meet in small groups, under the direction of a workshop supervisor, to discuss their experiences, emotions, and attitudes. The model for such a workshop is anthropological in structure.

Need for the Workshop—The workshop serves as an orientation course for the curriculum. A function of this course is to introduce and orient the student to the culture of the disadvantaged and to provide a self-exploratory experience in terms of personal reactions. The need for a reverse acculturative process is recognized as essential to the teaching of those from an alien culture and has often been stated as a need by teachers who work in disadvantaged settings.

Objectives—The orientation experience is based on the following objectives:

1. **To sensitize the student to an alien culture**
2. **To explore personal attitudes in relation to this culture**
3. **To understand and appreciate the life of the poor**
4. **To break down stereotypic thinking about the poor**
5. **To develop an appreciation of the variety of life among the poor**
6. **To develop an appreciation of the resourcefulness of the poor**
7. **To understand and appreciate the cultural gap between the middle class and the disadvantaged**
8. **To narrow the cultural gap between the trainee and the disadvantaged**
9. **To gain a direct insight of and experience with the structure of the life of the poor**
10. **To provide background experience upon which appropriate learning methods can be developed**

Procedure—It is suggested that the Orientation Workshop be offered on the time equivalency of a three-credit course for one semester, running for nine weeks.

The workshop will be under the direct supervision of an anthropologist and a personal counselor (who may be a clinical psychologist, counseling psychologist, or psychiatrist). The student will live, read, and discuss the culture of poverty.

The workshop supervisor will be responsible for identifying and establishing the "living-in" experiences in which the students will become involved as described in Unit I. The student will be responsible for activities relating to his reading, viewing films and plays, and obtaining and listening to appropriate records. The discussion groups will be organized and conducted on an informal basis by the workshop supervisor.

Units II, III, and IV are concomitant experiences rather than successive experiences.

The purpose of this procedure is to have the student develop sensitivities and rapport with the culturally disenfranchised and indigenous community life. The contact should be with indigenous persons rather than with professional persons so that experiences will be differentiated from later field and practicum experiences.

COURSE OUTLINE

Unit I. General Orientation

Purpose: The first week of the Orientation Workshop will be utilized to give the student an overview of the curriculum and the workshop.

A. The following are typical of the activities that will take place during the General Orientation:
   1. General introduction of staff and class members
   2. Overview of Curriculum—objectives, purposes, evaluation, anticipated outcomes, etc.
   3. Overview of Orientation Workshop—objectives, purposes, evaluation, anticipated outcomes, etc.
   4. Assignment of initial "living-in" experience
   5. Explanation of responsibility for the Reading, Films, Records, and Plays Unit
   6. Preparations for the "living-in" experience

Unit II. Experience in Living (8 weeks)

Purpose: The Experience in Living unit is intended to provide opportunity for guided and supervised participation and observation of the world of the disadvantaged. This is in the nature of a full living experience, but is not intended to throw the trainee into a world that is alien and/or hostile. Rather, he will be placed in such a setting under the close supervision and watchful guidance of the faculty.

Suggested Experiences

Note: The settings for the experiences enumerated below are located in communities where the disadvantaged predominate. Involvement in one experience does not preclude involvement in the other experiences; indeed it is hoped that the trainee will participate in as many local experiences as possible.

A. Residence in a local YMCA or YWCA, housing development, or other local dwelling

B. Volunteer work with local churches, local mission societies, or other indigenous community improvement agencies

C. Attendance at political meetings, rallies, etc., so as to gain knowledge of the local political structure

D. Attendance at community meetings, rallies, etc.

E. Participant-observation of informal, local activities such as attendance at bowling alleys, local theaters, taverns, boys' clubs, church meetings, grange hall activities, etc. (informal activities will vary from community to community)

F. Working as a clerk in retail stores, or engaging in the diverse commercial enterprises of the community on the indigenous level

G. Knowledge of local police and juridicial activity through court attendance, police hearings, probation activities

Unit III. Reading, Films, Records, Plays

Purpose: The unit on reading, films, records, and plays has as its primary purpose the development of a sensitivity and rapport with the disadvantaged.

A. The readings are non-academic in nature and the emphasis will be on fiction, personal experiences of the authors, and essays. The films, records, and plays will be of a similar nature.
   1. A suggested bibliography of readings, films, records, and plays is attached, and should be used as a guide.

Unit IV. Discussion

Purpose: To provide opportunity for the students to discuss their feelings, emotions, and attitudes that emerge as a result of the "living-in" experiences and from the readings, films, records, and plays experienced.

A. **Twice a week the students in small groups will meet their professional supervisors—an anthropologist and a personal counselor.**
   1. **The supervisors may be supplemented in the discussions (discussions will be centered on student experiences, feelings, emotions, and attitudes that emerge as a result of the "living-in" experiences and the readings, films, records, and plays experienced) by indigenous surrogates defined as persons residing in the community. These persons should be those who hold the community's trust and who act as guides, gate-keepers, and alter egos to the students.**
   2. **The nature of the discussion groups should be informal.**
   3. **The function of the supervisors, who will be the group discussion leaders, will be to act as clarifying agents of feelings, emotions, and attitudes. The supervisors will help the student to develop an appreciation of the cultural dimensions of his experience as well as to clarify his personal attitudes.**
   4. **It is not intended that the student become a member of the disadvantaged group, but rather that he develop an understanding and acceptance of his own adjustment difficulties to the world of the disadvantaged.**
   5. **Supervisors should be available to the students for personal consultation.**

SUGGESTED BIBLIOGRAPHY

A. Books

1. Agee, James and Evans, W. Let Us Now Praise Famous Men. Boston: Houghton-Mifflin, 1960.

2. Baldwin, James. Notes of a Native Son. Boston: Beacon Press, 1955.

3. ________. Nobody Knows My Name. New York: Dial Press, 1961.

4. ________. The Fire Next Time. New York: Dial Press, 1963.

5. ________. Going to Meet the Man. New York: Dial Press, 1965.

6. Brown, Claude. Man-Child in the Promised Land. New York: MacMillan Company, 1965.

7. Caldwell, Erskine. Any of Caldwell's novels dealing with poor southern whites, most particularly Tobacco Road.

8. Caudill, Harry. Night Comes to the Cumberland. Boston: Little, Brown, 1963.

9. Clark, Kenneth. Dark Ghetto. New York: Harper and Row, 1965.

10. Davis, Sammy, Jr. Yes I Can. New York: Farrar, Straus, 1965.

11. Ellison, Ralph. Invisible Man. New York: Random House, 1952.

12. Gregory, Dick. Nigger. New York: E. P. Dutton, 1964.

13. Griffin, J. Howard. Black Like Me. Boston: Houghton-Mifflin, 1961.

14. Harrington, Michael. The Other America. New York: MacMillan Company, 1962.

15. Killens, John. And Then We Heard the Thunder. New York: Alfred A. Knopf, 1962.

16. La Farge, Oliver. Any of La Farge's novels dealing with the American Indian, most particularly Laughing Boy.

17. Lewis, Oscar. Five Families. New York: Basic Books, 1959.

18. ________. Children of Sanchez. New York: Random House, 1961.

19. Steinbeck, John. All of Steinbeck's works dealing with the American poor, most particularly Grapes of Wrath, Tortilla Flats, Of Mice and Men.

20. Wright, Richard. All of Wright's novels dealing with the Negro, most particularly Native Son.

B. Plays

1. Baldwin, James	Blues for Mister Charlie
2. Genet, Jean	The Blacks
3. Jones, Le Roi	The Toilet
4. Odets, Clifford	Waiting for Lefty
5. Rice, Elmer	Street Scene

Note: Many plays are available in print, either as separate plays or as collections and anthologies.

C. Films

Note: Many of the following return as "film classics" hence failure to see them when they first appear does not mean that they are lost forever to the viewer.

1. David and Lisa
2. The Forgotten Village
3. The Grapes of Wrath
4. Home of the Brave
5. The Leather Boys
6. The Mark
7. Mornings for Jimmy
8. Nothing but a Man
9. One Potato, Two Potato
10. The Pawnbroker
11. The Pearl
12. The Quiet One
13. Sallah
14. The Southerner
15. West Side Story
16. The Wild Ones

D. Records

1. Anderson, Marian
   He's Got the Whole World in His Hands — Victor LM-2032

2. Bibb, Leon
   Oh Freedom and Other Spirituals — Washington 701
   Tol' My Captain — Vanguard 9058

3. Dylan, Bob
   Bob Dylan — Columbia CL-1779

4. Guthrie, Woody

Ballads of Sacco and Vanzetti	Folkways 5485
Dust Bowl Ballads	Folkways 2011
Sing With Leadbelly	Folkways 2483

5. Holliday, Billie

Blues Are Brewin'	Decca 8701
Lady Sings the Blues	Verve 8099

6. Leadbelly

Last Sessions	Folkways 2941-2

7. Robeson, Paul

Spirituals	Columbia ML-4105

8. White, Josh

Chain Gang Songs	Elektra 158
Empty Bed Blues	Elektra 211

Notes:

1. To be comprehensive such a list would include such individuals as: Pete Seeger, John Jacob Niles, Odetta, Big Bill Broonzy, Brownie McGhee, Sister Rosetta Tharpe, Sonny Terry, and Cisco Houston.

2. Folkways Records includes in their catalogue, albums of regional folk music, and American Indian folk music, by tribe and/or by area.

E. T.V. Documentaries

1. Many TV documentaries have chronicled the plight of the poor. The faculty should be aware of such future programming. Requests can be made for loans of earlier documentaries from broadcasting sources.

THE SOCIAL PSYCHOLOGY
OF THE DISADVANTAGED
(Four Credits)

Course Description—This course involves an analysis of the personal, educational, and vocational characteristics of the poor. Empirical information and theories on racial differences, prejudice, and attitude change are studied. The unique role of the Negro in American history as well as the present is traced as a model. Novels, essays, and plays are used to present the human aspects of poverty to the student.

Need for the Course—Academic courses in the behavioral sciences usually do not treat the issues of poverty nor do they systematically integrate their facts and theories with material from other social sciences. This course is an attempt to utilize the relevant aspects of social psychology for an understanding of the problems posed for society by the urban poor. Material from sociology, anthropology, history, and literature is integrated with that of psychology.

Course Objectives—The aim of this seminar is to prepare vocational teachers of disadvantaged youth to teach more effectively. Subsidiary objectives include:

1. To provide relevant information from social psychology and related disciplines so that the problems posed by the poor for society can be understood
2. To influence the attitudes of the teacher trainees so that their work will be marked by zeal and empathy
3. To make meaningful the problems of poverty raised in other courses of the curriculum
4. To provide a better understanding of the contemporary United States

Procedure—The course in the Social Psychology of the Disadvantaged should be offered on the time equivalency of a four-credit course for one semester.

It is recommended that the course be conducted on a combined lecture and seminar basis with specialists from other disciplines invited to participate as much as feasible. A social psychologist will be the instructor in charge of the course. Teachers from the following disciplines will participate in the units designated below:

Anthropology (Units 1, 2, 3)
Sociology (Units 1,4,7)
Education (Units 1,7)
Civil Rights (Unit 7)
History (Unit 8)
Literature (Unit 9)

Because the Negro is a large element in most cities' poor, emphasis has been placed on this group as a model. Where minority groups such as Mexicans, Puerto Ricans, or Appalachian whites constitute a significant proportion of the disadvantaged to be taught, Units 7, 8, and parts of 9 can be changed to fit the particular need.

It is suggested that the course instructors be alert to the treatment of the problems of the poor by the mass media (TV, weeklies, and dailies) and by the arts (movies, plays, and novels). He then can use timely assignments which will make the course relevant for contemporary issues.

COURSE OUTLINE

Unit I. The Characteristics of the Urban Poor: The Problem and Its Terminology

Purpose: This unit is designed to acquaint the student with the psychological, educational, and vocational characteristics of disadvantaged youth.

Topics for Discussion

A. Definitions of disadvantaged youth
  1. **Functional failure to adapt**
  2. **Socio-economic class**
  3. **Family and neighborhood constellation**
  4. **Psychological characteristics**

B. Problems posed for society by large pockets of urban poor
  1. **Family disruption**
  2. **Delinquency**
  3. **Drug addiction**
  4. **"Social dynamite"**

C. The role of education in dealing with disadvantaged youth
  1. **Historical role of acculturation**
  2. **Contemporary approaches**
  3. **General education for general employment**

D. A critique of the concept of cultural deprivation as an explanatory concept for educational retardation

Unit II. Racial and Ethnic Differences (General)

Purpose: To analyze the problems posed when a "difference" is found in the measurement of psychological characteristics between races.

Topics for Discussion

A. The anthropological approach
    1. The concept of race

B. The biological approach
    1. Arguments for "racial superiority"
        a. Physical and physiological characteristics
        b. Refutation

C. The cultural argument
    1. Contributions to culture
    2. Level of development
    3. Refutation

D. The evidence from scientific studies of intellectual and non-intellectual traits

E. The role of environmental factors

Unit III. Racial and Ethnic Differences in Measured Intelligence

Purpose: To develop the points made in Unit II as they are applied to the specific problem of intellectual differences.

Topics for Discussion

A. Measured differences in intelligence (the experimental literature related to the topic is to be summarized)

B. An analysis of the role of environmental factors
    1. Language
    2. Education
    3. Socio-economic class
    4. Speed

C. The test instrument's role in producing differences

D. The effect of changed environment on measured intelligence

Unit IV. Racial Prejudice

Purpose: To make the student aware that a central social issue, racial prejudice, can be studied as a socio-psychological process. This will enable him to understand the phenomenon in himself and others in the community.

Topics for Discussion

A. Theories of racial prejudice
   1. Economic: historical emphasis (Exploitation theory)
   2. Urbanization: socio-cultural emphasis (Mass culture and urban traits)
   3. Atmosphere: situational emphasis
   4. Frustration: psychodynamic emphasis (Reactions to frustration)
   5. Phenomenological emphasis (Man's perceptions and beliefs)
   6. Emphasis on earned reputation: group differences that provoke hostility

B. The learning of prejudice

C. The functional role played by prejudice in the life of the individual

D. Stereotypes and prejudice

E. The role of the school

Unit V. Attitudes and Opinions: Their Measurement and Change

Purpose: To make the student aware of the dynamic qualities of attitudinal systems and the conditions under which changes occur.

Topics for Discussion

A. The psychological structure of attitude
   1. Direction
   2. Degree
   3. Intensity
   4. Salience

B. The development of attitude

C. Changing attitude
   1. Interpersonal contact in
      a. Military
      b. Housing
      c. School desegregation

Note: The students' experiences in the program will be discussed in terms of the above.

Unit VI. Relationship Between Attitudinal Patterns and Personality

Purpose: To show the relationship between belief systems and the personality structure of the believer.

Topics for Discussion

A. The generality of prejudice

B. The relationship between personality factors and generalized ethnocentricity

C. The authoritarian personality

Unit VII. Negro Reaction to Prejudice

Purpose: To analyze the way in which contemporary minority groups respond to prejudice so that the wide range of adjustment visible in the behavior of Negroes is made understandable.

Topics for Discussion

A. The emergence of various viewpoints and leaders in the Negro's movement toward equality is analyzed by reading and writing two book reports on current issues.

Unit VIII. The Negro in the United States: The Historical Background

Purpose: To develop an understanding of the historical roots of current problems, the Negro's role in American history is treated in detail.

Topics for Discussion

A. Slavery

B. The Civil War

C. Reconstruction

D. The Post-Reconstruction Period

E. Contemporary Issues

Unit IX. Reading in the Literature of the Poor

Purpose: To make understandable the lives of the poor in flesh and blood characterization.

Topics for Discussion

A. Readings from literature dealing with the poor will be assigned for review.

B. The student is to write two book reviews. Two different authors from the Suggested Reading List given for Unit IX are to be used.

SUGGESTED READING LIST

Unit I. The Characteristics of the Urban Poor: The Problem and Its Terminology

1. Clark, K. B. "Clash of Cultures in the Classroom," Integrated Education. 1963, Vol. 1, No. 4, pages 7-14.

2. Cleft, V. A. "Factors Relating to the Education of Culturally Deprived Negro Youth," Educational Theory. 1964, Vol. 14, pages 76-82.

3. Deutsch, M. "Minority Group and Class Status as Related to Social and Personality Factors in Scholastic Achievement," Social and Applied Anthropological Monograph. 1960, Vol. 2.

4. Havighurst, R. J. "Who Are the Socially Disadvantaged?" Journal of Negro Education. 1964, Vol. 33, pages 210-218.

5. Landers, J. "The Responsibilities of Teachers and School Administration," Journal of Negro Education. 1964, Vol. 33, pages 318-332.

6. Lipton, A. "Cultural Deprivation," Journal of Educational Sociology. 1962, Vol. 36, pages 17-19.

7. Mackler, B. and Gidding, M. G. "Cultural Deprivation; A Study in Mythology," Teachers College Record. 1965, Vol. 66, pages 608-613.

8. National Education Association. Education and the Disadvantaged American. Report of the Educational Policies Commission, 1962.

9. Perry, J. "The Preparation of Disadvantaged Youth for Employment and Civic Responsibilities," Journal of Negro Education. 1964, Vol. 33, pages 275-281.

10. Reissman, F. "Cultural Styles of the Disadvantaged," Integrated Education. 1963, Vol. 1, pages 9-15.

11. Wolf, E. P. and Wolf, L. "Sociological Perspective on the Education of the Culturally Deprived Children," School Review. 1962, Vol. 70, pages 373-387.

Supplementary Readings

12. Clark, K. B. Dark Ghetto. New York: Harper and Row Publishers, 1965.

13. Passow, A. H. (ed.) Education in Depressed Areas. New York: Teachers College Bureau of Publications, 1963.

14. Sexton, P. Education and Income. New York: Viking Press, 1961.

Unit II. Racial and Ethnic Differences (General)

1. Klineberg, O. Social Psychology. (2nd ed.) New York: Henry Holt, 1954, pages 291-327.

Supplementary Readings

2. Klineberg, O. Race Differences. New York: Harper & Brothers, 1935.

3. Pettigrew, T. F. A Profile of the American Negro. New York: D. Van Nostrand Company, Inc., 1964, pages 59-159.

Unit III. Racial and Ethnic Differences in Measured Intelligence

1. Brown, F. "An Experimental and Critical Study of the Intelligence of Negro and White Kindergarten Children," Journal of Genetic Psychology, 1944, Vol. 65, pages 161-175.

2. Dreger, R. M., and Miller, K. S. "Cooperative Psychological Studies of Negroes and Whites in the U. S.," Psychological Bulletin, 1960, Vol. 57, pages 361-402.

3. Deutsch, M. and Brown, B. "Social Influences in Negro-White Intelligence Differences," Journal of Social Issues, 1964, Vol. 20, pages 24-36.

4. Els, K., et al. Intelligence and Cultural Differences. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1951, pages 3-57.

5. Jackson, E. R. "The Impact of Environment on Racial Achievement," Journal of Human Relations, 1958, Vol. 6, pages 47-53.

6. Lee, E. S. "Negro Intelligence and Selective Migration," American Sociological Review, 1951, Vol. 16, pages 227-233.

7. McCord, W. M. and Demerath, N. J. "Negro vs. White Intelligence: A Continuing Controversy," Harvard Educational Review, 1958, Vol. 28, pages 120-135.

8. McQueen, R. and Churn, B. "The Intelligence and Educational Achievement of a Matched Sample of White and Negro Students," School and Society, 1960, Vol. 88, pages 327-329.

9. Osborn, R.T. "Racial Differences in Mental Growth and School Achievement: A Longitudinal Study," Psychological Reports, 1960, Vol. 7, pages 233-239.

10. Pasamanick, B. and Knoblock, H. "Early Language Behavior in Negro Children and the Testing of Intelligence," Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology, 1955, Vol. 50, pages 401-402.

11. Plotkin, L. "Racial Differences in Intelligence," American Psychologist, 1959, Vol. 49, pages 526-527.

12. Rohrer, J.H. "The Test Intelligence of Osage Indians," Journal of Social Psychology, 1942, Vol. 16, pages 99-105.

13. Sherman, M. and Key, C.B. "The Intelligence of Isolated Mountain Children," Child Development, 1932, Vol, 3, pages 279-290.

Supplementary Readings

14. Haggard, C.A. "Social Status and Intelligence; An Experimental Study of Certain Cultural Determinants of Measured Intelligence," Genetic Psychology Monograph, 1954, Vol. 49, pages 141-186.

15. Hunt, W.A. "Negro-White Differences in Intelligence in World War II—A Note of Caution," Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology, 1947, Vol. 42, pages 254-255.

16. Klineberg, O. Negro Intelligence and Selective Migration. New York: Columbia University Press, 1935.

17. _______. Characteristics of the American Negro. New York: Harper and Brothers Publishers, 1944.

18. Machover, S. "Cultural and Racial Variations in Patterns of Intellect," Teachers College Contributions to Education, #875. 1943.

19. Tumin, M.M. (ed.). Race and Intelligence. New York: Anti-Defamation League, 1963.

Unit IV. Racial and Ethnic Prejudice

1. Allport, G. The Nature of Prejudice. Cambridge, Mass.: Addison-Wesley Publishers, 1954, pages 3-81, 189-205, 206-220, 243-260.

2. Clark, K.B. Prejudice and Your Child. Boston: Beacon Press, 1963, pages 17-94.

3. Krech, D. and Crutchfield, R.S. Theories and Problems of Social Psychology. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1948, pages 443-531.

Supplementary Readings

4. Dollard, J. Caste and Class in a Southern Town. New Haven, Conn.: Yale University Press, 1937.

5. Marrow, A.J. Changing Patterns of Prejudice. Philadelphia: Chilton Books, 1962.

6. Montagu, A.M.F. Man's Most Dangerous Myth. New York: Columbia University Press, 1945.

Unit V. Attitudes and Opinions: Their Measurement and Change

1. Alsop, S. and Quayle, O. "What Northerners Really Think of Negroes," Saturday Evening Post, 1963, Vol. 238, pages 17-21.

2. Deutsch, M. and Collins, M.E. "The Effect of Public Policy in Housing Projects Upon Interracial Attitudes," Readings in Social Psychology, (3rd ed., edited by Maccoby, E.E., Newcomb, T.M., and Hartley, E.L.). New York: Henry Holt, 1958, pages 612-623.

3. Hartley, E.L. "Development of Attitude Toward Negroes," Readings in Social Psychology, (2nd ed., edited by Newcomb, T.M., and Hartley, E.L.). New York: Henry Holt, 1952, pages 491-501.

4. _______ and Hartley, R.E. Fundamentals of Social Psychology. New York: Alfred A. Knopf, 1955, pages 651-740.

5. Hyman, H.H. and Sheatsley, P.B. "Attitudes Toward Desegregation," Scientific American, 1956, Vol. 195, pages 35-39.

6. Katz, D. and Braly, K. W. Verbal Stereotypes and Racial Prejudice in Readings in Social Psychology. (3rd ed., edited by Maccoby, E.E., Newcomb, T.M., and Hartley, E.L.). New York: Henry Holt, 1958, pages 40-47.

7. Krech, D. and Crutchfield, R.S. Theory and Problems of Social Psychology. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1948, pages 149-273.

8. MacKenzie, B. "The Importance of Contact in Determining Attitude Toward Negroes," Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology, 1948, Vol. 43, pages 417-441.

9. "How Whites Feel About Negroes: A Painful American Dilemma," Newsweek, October 21, 1963, Vol. 62, pages 44-57.

10. Starr, S.A., Williams, R.M., and Stouffer, S.A. "Negro Infantry Platoons in White Companies," Readings in Social Psychology, (3rd ed., edited by Maccoby, E.E., Newcomb, T.M., and Hartley, E.L.), New York: Henry Holt, 1958, pages 596-602.

11. Stember, C.H. Education and Attitude Change: The Effect of Schooling on Prejudice Against Minority Groups. New York: American Jewish Congress, Institute of Human Relations, 1961.

Supplementary Readings

12. Banks, W. R. "Changing Attitudes Toward the Negro in the U.S.," Journal of Negro Education, 1961, Vol. 30, pages 87-93.

13. Boas, F. Race and Democratic Society. Locust Valley, N.Y.: J.J. Augustin Publishing Co., 1945.

14. Klineberg, O. Social Psychology (2nd ed.). New York: Henry Holt, 1954.

15. Lindzey, G. (ed.) Handbook of Social Psychology, Vol. II. Cambridge, Mass.: Addison-Wesley, 1954, pages 1021-1062.

16. Rose, A. M. Studies in Reduction of Prejudice (2nd ed.). Chicago: American Council on Race Relations, 1948.

Unit VI. Relationship Between Attitudinal Patterns and Personality

1. Adorno, T.W., et al. The Authoritarian Personality. New York: Harper and Brothers, 1950, pages 971-976.

2. Bettelheim, B. and Janowitz, M. Dynamics of Prejudice. New York: Harper and Row Publishers, 1950, pages 7-31.

3. Himmelhock, J. "Tolerance and Personality Needs; A Study of the Liberalization of Ethnic Attitudes Among Minority Group College Students," American Sociological Review, 1950, Vol. 15, pages 79-88.

4. Milner, E. "Some Hypotheses Concerning the Influence of Segregation on Negro Personality Development," Psychiatry, 1953, Vol. 16, pages 291-297.

5. Protho, E.T. "Ethnocentrism and Anti-Negro Attitudes in the Deep South," Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology, 1952, Vol. 47, pages 105-108.

6. Smith, C.W. and Protho, J.W. "Ethnic Differences in Authoritarian Personality," Social Forces, 1957, Vol. 35, pages 334-338.

Unit VII. Negro Reaction to Prejudice

Note: The student is to write two book reviews from the following:

1. Brink, W. and Harris, L. The Negro Revolution in America. New York: Simon and Schuster, 1964.

2. Burns, W. H. The Voices of Negro Protest in America. New York: Oxford University Press, 1963.

3. Clark, K.B. (ed.) The Negro Protest: James Baldwin, Malcolm X and Martin Luther King Talk with K.B. Clark. Boston: Beacon Press, 1963.

4. ______. Dark Ghetto. New York: Harper and Row Publishers, 1965.

5. Killens, J.O. Black Man's Burden. New York: Trident Press, 1965.

6. Lincoln, C.E. The Black Muslims in America. Boston: Beacon Press, 1961.

7. Lomax, L.E. The Negro Revolt. New York: Harper and Row Publishers, 1962.

8. Silberman, L.E. Crisis in Black and White. New York: Random House, 1964.

Unit VIII. The Negro in the United States: The Historical Background of Contemporary Problems

A. General History

1. Franklin, J.H. From Slavery to Freedom (2nd ed). New York: Alfred A. Knopf, 1965.

2. Tannenbaum, F. Slave and Citizen: The Negro in the Americas. New York: Alfred A. Knopf, 1946.

Supplementary Readings

3. Aptheker, H. The Negro People in America. New York: International Publications, 1946.

4. Frazier, E. F. The Negro in the United States. New York: The MacMillan Company, 1957.

5. Herskovitz, M. J. The Myth of the Negro Past. Boston: Beacon Press, 1958.

6. Myrdal, G. An American Dilemma. New York: Harper and Brothers, 1944.

7. Redding, J. S. They Came in Chains. New York: J. B. Lippincott Company, 1950.

B. Slavery

8. Aptheker, H. American Negro Slave Revolts. New York: International Publications, 1963.

9. Botkin, B. Lay My Burden Down--A Folk History of Slavery. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1945.

10. Davidson, B. Black Mother: The Years of the African Slave Trade. Boston: Little, Brown Publishers, 1961.

11. Elkins, S. Slavery. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1959.

12. Stampp, K. M. The Peculiar Institution: Slavery in the Ante-Bellum South. New York: Alfred A. Knopf, 1956.

C. Reconstruction and Post-Reconstruction

13. Franklin, J. H. Reconstruction After the Civil War. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1961.

14. Woodward, C. V. The Strange Career of Jim Crow. New York: Oxford University Press, 1957.

Supplementary Reading

15. Du Bois, W. E. B. Black Reconstruction in America, 1860-1880. New York: Meridian Books, 1966.

16. Shenton, J. P. The Reconstruction: A Documentary History of the South. New York: Putnam, 1963.

17. Wharton, V. L. The Negro in Mississippi, 1865-1890. Chapel Hill, N.C.: University of North Carolina, 1947.

18. Woodward, C.V. Tom Watson, Agrarian Rebel. New York: The MacMillan Company, 1938.

Unit IX. Readings in Literature of the Poor

Note: The student is to write two book reviews. Two different authors from the following list are to be used.

1. Baldwin, James. Notes of a Native Son. Boston: Beacon Press, 1955.
2. _______. Nobody Knows My Name. New York: Dial Press, 1961.
3. _______. Another Country. New York: Dial Press, 1962.
4. _______. The Fire Next Time. New York: Dial Press, 1963.
5. _______. Blues for Mr. Charlie. New York: Dial Press, 1964.
6. Ellison, R. The Invisible Man. New York: New American Library, 1964.
7. Gold, M. Jews Without Money. New York: Liveright, 1935.
8. Gregory, R. Nigger. New York: E. P. Dutton, 1964.
9. Killens, J. O. Youngblood. New York: Dial Press, 1954.
10. _______. And Then We Heard the Thunder. New York: Alfred A. Knopf, 1962.
11. Lewis, O. Children of Sanchez. New York: Random House, 1961.
12. Marshall, P. Brown Girl, Brownstones. New York: Random House, 1959.

13. Wright, R. Native Son. New York: Grosset, 1940.

14. _______. Black Boy. New York: Harper and Row Publishers, 1963.

15. _______. Lawd Today. Chicago: Walker and Co., 1963.

SEMINAR IN URBAN SOCIETY

(Four Credits)

Seminar Description—This seminar deals with urban social organization, stratification, and change; the organizational context of work and industry; the culture of youth; with racism, racial conflict, and tension; with deviancy and conformity; and with the social system of community life.

Need for the Seminar—The assumption is made that the quality of vocational/technical instruction, as well as other pertinent goals, can be increased or attained by providing teachers and other related educational personnel with systematic knowledge and appreciation of the irrealities and realities of the American societal system. Teachers of adolescents and young adults, in particular, must be made aware with all bluntness of the practices and the system of contemporary American societal life. All of the other elements or components of the proposed curriculum must ultimately make sense within this context. This crucial need applies specifically to each of the six unit components of this course of study.

Seminar Objectives—All aims of the course have three essential dimensions: a deliberate and shameless disenchantment of the teacher trainee with the myths of American society; a general input-type of cognitive and normative acquisition of an awareness and consciousness of American society by teacher trainees; and a delivery-type mechanism and body of relevant materials that can be innovatively transmitted to youth taught by the transformed teachers. Specific aims are indicated by the following questions:

1. What are the ways that the members of American society really behave?
2. What are the ideologies, goals, and values (actual and professed) which members of American society hold?
3. What are the main social structures into which members of American society organize themselves, and what are the natures of the connections between such structures and their consequences?
4. What are the principal agents, agencies, and channels of change among the members of American society?
5. What are the persistent and recurrent problems or failures of the members of American society?
6. What models or patterns of deviance and conformity do we observe among the members of American society?

Procedure—The Seminar in Urban Sociology will be offered on a time equivalency of a four-credit course for one semester. It is recommended that this seminar be interdisciplinary in form and content. It is also strongly recommended that the instructor in charge be a sociologist interested in theory and/or urban problems; he should utilize representatives from the other behavioral sciences (e.g., anthropology, economics, geography, history, political science, and social psychology) as well as representatives from literature, the arts, and philosophy. Discussion, dialogue and conversation, should be the heart of the dynamics of the seminar; coupled with strategic lectures, guided reading and supervised small-group thinking periods, films, and field visits as conducted under the Orientation Workshop. Nor can the seminar be successful without genuine output by the teacher trainees into adventurous explorations of the wealth of the suggested reading materials. Evaluation should not be of the traditional type. It should be based upon a terminal personal conference with the seminar director, and possibly the submission of a written critique of the Seminar and the Orientation Workshop as they relate to the educational system, learning, and vocational-technical programs in contemporary American society.

COURSE OUTLINE

Unit I. The Nature of Society

Purpose: The purpose of this unit is to provide the student with an analytical tool useful for the objective and accurate understanding of the contemporary group life of man. It will provide a set of concepts and propositions about associative life, and an introductory application of them to the major processes, structures, and dynamic conditions of contemporary American society.

Topics for Discussion

A. The Approach: Society, sociology, and social systems analysis

B. Social power, tension, and conflict: Processes and structures

C. Stratification: The legitimacy and illegitimacy of inequality
    1. Topdog and underdog

D. Ideology
    1. Sources
    2. Causes
    3. Functions

E. Social movements and social change
    1. Dissent
    2. Conformity

Unit II. Urbanism As a Way of Life

Purpose: The purpose of this unit is to provide the student with a "case" for the analysis and interpretation of the social processes, structures, and consequences of associative life in urban and nonurban community systems.

A. The urban community: structure and processes
   1. Ecological and demographic correlates
   2. Rural and urban social systems

B. Urbanization and industrialization
   1. The metropolitan region

C. Slum and suburb communities

D. The city: the transformation of power
   1. Problems
   2. Prospects

Unit III. Racism: Tension, Conflict, and Power Relations

Purpose: The purpose of this unit is to provide the student with knowledge about and understanding of the tensions and conflicts, especially in urban areas and educational systems, arising out of intergroup contacts and relations. Attention will be given especially to racial, religious, and ethnic group processes. The structure, process, costs, and consequences of the American system of racism will be emphasized.

A. The nature of the problem: intergroup relations
   1. Prejudice, discrimination, and segregation—an American system

B. Causes of the problem
   1. Inferiority and superiority

C. Functions of the problem
   1. Superordination and subordination

D. Consequences of the problem
   1. Educational
   2. Economic
   3. Political
   4. Psychological
   5. Moral
   6. Social

Unit IV. The World of Youth

Purpose: The purpose of this unit is to provide the student with knowledge about and insight into the social worlds of adolescents and young adults. Emphasis will be placed upon both conformity and deviancy within community (urban and nonurban) settings, educational systems, and in the world of work.

A. Socialization, role and reference group theory

B. Social mobility and intergenerational conflict

C. Colonialism, authority, conformity, and dissent

D. Sex, agression, and violence

E. Education and miseducation

F. The labor market
    1. Powerlessness of youth

Unit V. Complex Organizations: Bureaucracy and Institutional Systems; Social Control and Decision-Making

Purpose: The purpose of this unit is to provide the student with knowledge about the organization and functions of work in our industrial and urban society. The structural contexts of work, and the principles underlying the processes of conflict within community settings will be stressed. The ramifications of variables of youth, minority status, and education for work and leisure will be explored.

A. The world of work
    1. Authority and discipline
    2. Myths and reality

B. The labor market and the work force

C. Unions and management

D. Education and job

E. Work and leisure

Unit VI. Social Change: Equilibrium and Disequilibrium

Purpose: The purpose of this unit is to enhance the student's insight into the dynamics of societal alteration and transformation. The goals, agents, vehicles, functions, and consequences of social change will be examined, with special attention being given to the practices and the system of education in contemporary American society.

- **A. The status quo**
  - **1. Ideology and utopia**
- **B. Reform, rebellion, and revolution**
- **C. Who gets what, when, and how?**
- **D. Power and powerlessness: the poor**
- **E. Deviance and pathology**

SUGGESTED READING LIST

Unit I. The Nature of Society

1. Berger, Peter L. *Invitation to Sociology*. Garden City, New York: Anchor Books, 1963.
2. Bredemeier, H.C. and Stephensen, R.M. *The Analysis of Social Systems*. New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, Inc., 1965.
3. Bremner, R. *From the Depths*. New York: New York University, 1956.
4. Brim, Arville G., Jr. and Wheeler, S. *Socialization After Childhood.* New York: John Wiley, 1966.
5. Centers, R. *The Psychology of Social Classes.* Princeton: Princeton University Press, 1949.
6. Coser, L.A. *The Functions of Social Conflict*. Glencoe, Illinois: The Free Press, 1956.
7. Durkheim, E. *Education and Sociology*. Glencoe, Illinois: The Free Press, 1956.
8. Goldstein, Bernard. "The Culture of Poverty: Implications for Education," unpublished paper presented before Annual 1965 Meeting of the American Montessori Society.
9. Harrington, M. *The Other America.* New York: The MacMillan Company, 1962.
10. Homans, G. *The Human Group*. New York: Harcourt, Brace, and World, 1950.
11. Hunter, Floyd. *The Big Rich and the Little Rich*. New York: Doubleday and Company, Inc., 1965.
12. Keller, Suzanne. *The American Lower Class Family*. New York: New York State Division for Youth, 1965.
13. Kolko, G. *Wealth and Power in America*. New York: Praeger, 1962.
14. Lipset, S.M. and Bendix, R. *Class Status and Power*. Glencoe, Illinois: The Free Press, 1953.
15. Miller, S.M. "The American Lower Class," *Social Research*. Spring, 1964, Vol. 34, page 1.

16. Mills, C. W. Power, Politics and People. New York: Oxford University Press, 1963.

17. Toch, Hans. The Social Psychology of Social Movements. New York: Bobbs-Merrill Co., Inc., 1965.

Unit II. Urbanism as a Way of Life

1. Bell, Robert R. Marriage and Family Interaction. Illinois: The Dorsey Press, Inc., 1963.

2. Clark, K.B. Dark Ghetto. New York: Harper and Row Publishers, 1965.

3. Cox, Harvey. The Secular City. New York: The MacMillan Company, 1965.

4. Elias, C. E., Jr. Metropolis: Values in Conflict. Belmont, California: Wadsworth Publishing Co., 1964.

5. Hoover, E.M. and Vernon, R. Anatomy of a Metropolis. Garden City, New York: Anchor Books, 1962.

6. Hunnicutt, C. W. (ed.). Urban Education and Cultural Deprivation. Syracuse: Syracuse University, School of Education, 1964.

7. Jacobs, Jane. The Life and Death of Great American Cities. New York: Random House, 1961.

8. Nisbet, Robert A. The Quest for Community. New York: Oxford University Press, 1953.

9. Passow, A. H. (ed.). Education in Depressed Areas. New York: Columbia University Press, 1963.

10. Rossi, P. The Politics of Urban Renewal. New York: The Free Press, 1961.

11. Schnore, Leo F. The Urban Scene. New York: The Free Press, 1965.

12. Weber, M. The City. New York: The Free Press, 1958.

Unit III. Racism: Tension, Conflict, and Power Relations

1. Anonymous, "The Worldwide Plague of City Riots: A British View," Harper's Magazine, November, 1965.
2. "The Negro American," Daedalus, Fall, 1965, Vol. 94, page 4.
3. Frazier, E. F. The Black Bourgoisie. New York: Collier Books, 1962.
4. Glazer, Nathan. "Negroes and Jews—The New Challenge to Pluralism," Commentary, December, 1964, Vol. 38, page 6.
5. ______ and Moynihan, D. P. Beyond the Melting Pot. Cambridge, Massachusetts: The M. I. T. Press, 1963.
6. Goffman, E. Stigma. Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1963.
7. Pettigrew, T. The Profile of the Negro American. New York: D. Van Nostrand Co., Inc., 1964.
8. Rustin, Bayard. "From Protest to Politics: The Future of the Civil Rights Movement," Commentary, February, 1965, Vol. 39, page 2.
9. Sexton, P. C. Spanish Harlem. New York: Harper and Row Publishers, 1965.
10. Simpson, G. E. and Yinger, J. M. Racial and Cultural Minorities. New York: Harper and Row Publishers, 1964.
11. Woodward, C. Vann. The Strange Career of Jim Crow. New York: Oxford University Press, 1957.
12. Yinger, J. Milton. A Minority Group in American Society. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1965.

Unit IV. The World of Youth

1. Erikson, E. H. Childhood and Society. New York: W. Norton, 1950.
2. Friedenberg, Edgar Z. The Vanishing Adolescent. Boston: Boston Beacon Press, 1959.
3. ______. Coming of Age in America: Growth and Acquiescence. New York: Random House, 1965.

4. Goldstein, B. and Stark, H. Entering the Labor Force. New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, Inc., 1964.

5. Goodman, P. Growing Up Absurd. New York: Random House, 1960.

6. Gottlieb, D. and Ramsey, Charles E. The American Adolescent. Illinois: The Dorsey Press, Inc., 1964.

7. _______ and Reeves, J. Adolescent Behavior in Urban Areas. Glencoe, Illinois: The Free Press, 1963.

8. Hare, Paul, et al. Small Groups. New York: Alfred A. Knopf, 1955.

9. Riessman, Frank. The Culturally Deprived Child. New York: Harper and Row Publishers, 1962.

10. Ritchie, O.W. and Koller, M.R. Sociology of Childhood. New York: Appleton-Century Crofts, 1964.

11. Strom, Robert D. Teaching in the Slum School. Columbus, Ohio: Charles E. Merrill Books, 1965.

12. Whyte, W. F. "A Slum Sex Code," American Journal of Sociology, July, 1943, Vol. 49.

Unit V. Complex Organizations: Bureaucracy and Institutional Systems; Social Control and Decision-Making

1. Anonymous, "Why White Collar Workers Can't Be Organized," Harper's Magazine, August, 1957, Vol. 215.

2. Barnett, Lawrence J. "Does Education for Work, Work?" The Urban Review, May, 1966, 6 pages unnumbered.

3. Becker, H.S. "The Career of the Chicago Public School Teacher," American Journal of Sociology, 1952, Vol. 57.

4. Bierstedt, Robert, et al. Sociology and Contemporary Education. New York: Random House, 1964.

5. Blau, P. M. Bureaucracy in Modern Society. New York: Random House, 1956.

6. Brookover, W. B. and Gottlieb, D. The Sociology of Education. New York: American Book Co., 1964.

7. Caplow, T. The Sociology of Work. Minneapolis: University of Minnesota Press, 1954.

8. Dahrendorf, R. Class and Class Conflict in Industrial Society. Stanford: Stanford University Press, 1959.

9. Etzioni, A. Complex Organizations. New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, Inc., 1964.

10. Gouldner, Alvin W. Patterns of Industrial Bureaucracy. New York: Harper and Brothers, 1954.

11. Hollingshead, A. B. Elmtown's Youth. New York: John Wiley and Sons, Inc., 1949.

12. Hughes, E. C. Men and Their Work. Glencoe, Illinois: The Free Press, 1958.

13. "Educational Planning for Socially Disadvantaged Children and Youth," The Journal of Negro Education, Summer, 1964, Vol. 33, page 3.

14. Parkinson, John N. Parkinson's Law. London: John Murray, 1958.

Unit VI. Social Change: Equilibrium and Disequilibrium

1. Becker, Howard. Outsiders. Glencoe, Illinois: The Free Press, 1963.

2. Barzun, J. Teacher in America. Garden City, New York: Anchor Books, 1954.

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FIELD EXPERIENCE
(Four Credits)

Description—The Field Experience provides the students with an opportunity to observe and participate in a variety of professional settings involving disadvantaged populations. The student will be placed in public and private organizations and agencies having the responsibility for employment, community service, and welfare.

Need for the Course—The Field Experience will provide the opportunity for the student to enlarge upon his orientation experiences and to integrate concepts learned in the Seminars in Urban Society and The Social Psychology of the Disadvantaged with the real problems faced by the social agencies and their clients. The Field Experience will enable the student to study the process of professional intervention and its effects upon minority group problems. Only through such an opportunity will it be possible for the student to become directly aware of the variety and magnitude of the problems of the disadvantaged and the effects of professional intervention.

Objectives—The Field Experience aims to provide insights and skills different from those of the Orientation Workshop and the Educational Practicum. These goals are enumerated below:

1. To provide the student with a knowledge and awareness of the helping agencies that exist, their philosophies, techniques, and their success or lack of it
2. To provide the student with an understanding of how the disadvantaged get jobs and the effects on them of their failure to get jobs
3. To gain an understanding of community action programs and processes
4. To provide the student with an understanding of programs provided and supported at different levels by Federal, state, and local governments (as well as private institutions and volunteer groups), and the interactions and opportunities fostered by these sources
5. To provide the student opportunity to apply and validate the concepts acquired in the Seminars in Urban Society and The Social Psychology of the Disadvantaged
6. To provide a setting in which the student will be able to learn something about himself when confronted by the problems of the disadvantaged, and as related to the notion of the helping hand
7. To develop knowledge of the processes used to interview and place people into semiskilled and unskilled jobs
8. To gain insight into the needs of industry, the kinds of jobs available for those with limited skills, the training and education needed for such jobs, the personality traits needed by those employed in such jobs, etc.
9. To gain knowledge of the various private and public programs available to help the disadvantaged

Procedure—It is suggested that the Field Experience course be offered on the time equivalency of a four-credit course for one semester. This course will run concurrently with the Seminars in Urban Society and The Social Psychology of the Disadvantaged. It will have to be scheduled so as to enable all three offerings to be taken during the same semester.

Each student will be placed in two agencies during the Field Experience course. Every student will be placed in a personnel office of an industrial concern that employs large numbers of persons in semiskilled and unskilled jobs. The second experience will be selected from among community, social, and welfare agencies.

Field coordinators, under the direction of a field experience supervisor, will be responsible for placement and guidance of the student. Students will meet with the field coordinators once a week to discuss common and unique experiences and to relate these experiences to concepts learned in the seminars.

To facilitate placement procedures the class may be divided into two groups—one group in an industrial setting and the other in an agency setting. At the midpoints in the semester the groups will rotate their area of emphasis. Thus, the order of Units given below do not have chronological implications.

COURSE OUTLINE

Unit I. The Industrial Setting

Purpose: The personnel department of an industrial setting has been particularly chosen and singled out because the program is ultimately aimed at producing teachers who will prepare disadvantaged youth for the world of work. Such preparation for the world of work will only be meaningful if youth so prepared can then enter the world of work. In the majority of the cases, entrance to the world of work will come through such personnel offices as these students will be attached to in their Field Experience. Thus, in the process of teaching students, the teacher can have an awareness of the techniques by which students obtain jobs and the nature of the work and working conditions on those jobs. In this way their teaching can be more appropriately tailored to the situation which will be encountered.

Suggested Establishments

A. Manufacturing industries

B. Service industries
   1. Food and beverage preparation
   2. Lodging and related services
   3. Amusement and recreation

C. Occupations in processing occupations

  1. **Food, tobacco, paper, petroleum, coal, chemicals, plastics, synthetics, rubber, paint, wood, wood products, stone, clay, leather, and textile products**

D. Transportation occupations

E. Packaging and materials handling

F. Distribution and sales

Anticipated Outcomes—Students placed in such situations will observe the process of induction of employees into semiskilled and unskilled jobs. They will (a) meet and interact with applicants, (b) see, use, and interpret application forms, (c) observe people working in semiskilled and unskilled jobs and acquire knowledge of the demands of such jobs, (d) gain knowledge of the testing programs used by industry in the selection of employees, (e) gain knowledge of union and labor organization grievance processes, and (f) they may see nonobjective bases used in the selection of employees.

Unit II. Community, Social, and Welfare Agencies

Purpose: The teacher of the disadvantaged will also be confronted, through the students, by a variety of personal and family problems concerning social needs, financial needs, and the like. To deal with this the teacher must also function as a coordinator of community services. It is necessary that he be aware of the community services that exist, the manner in which one obtains these services or takes advantage of them, the nature of the services rendered, and the likely outcome in order to be able to function in a coordinating capacity. In addition, seminars in the Social Psychology of the Disadvantaged and Urban Society have attempted to identify the problems that exist, their bases and their dynamics. In order that the student be confronted with these problems first-hand and see evidence of their dynamics, their bases, and the effects of intervention on their outcomes, the community experience aspect of the program is absolutely essential.

Suggested Agencies

A. Division of Employment Security—The students will be expected to participate in the tasks of this agency, to interview candidates, review job applications, classify jobs, and be aware of the outcomes of attempted placements and recommendations. This agency, in particular, is utilized frequently by individuals seeking semiskilled and unskilled jobs.

B. Welfare Departments—Students will be assigned to participate in the activities of city or state welfare departments. This would entail consideration of applications, interviewing applicants, and following up problems associated with failure to receive welfare.

C. Programs Funded Under the Economic Opportunity Act—This includes Community Action Programs, Job Corps, VISTA and other such sponsored programs. The student will engage in participation and observation of Federally sponsored community programs where such are available, interact with the clientele for whom they provide services, and observe the effects of such services that are provided.

D. Privately Financed Volunteer Programs—Programs that are referred to include such programs as The Ford Foundation grant projects. Again the student will participate and observe the management of these programs, the clientele served, and the effects of the services rendered.

E. Public Health Agencies—Students will be assigned to hospitals, clinics, emergency wards, and other public health facilities for which remuneration is not required for services rendered. Individuals will participate as far as possible and observe the clientele serviced and the effects of the services provided, both in terms of their adequacy and inadequacy.

F. Recreational Facilities in Slum Areas—This includes playgrounds, community centers, parks, and other play and athletic facilities that have been provided for the community. Individuals will participate on an informal basis, observe the individuals, and observe interactions taking place at such community centers.

Unit III. Seminar

Purpose: The purpose of the seminar aspect of the Field Experience course is to discuss issues of common concern.

Suggested Activities

A. Once weekly the students will meet with the field experience supervisor and the field coordinators to discuss problems, critical incidents, unusual happenings, etc., that arise out of their field experiences. The following are given as typical examples of topics that might arise out of the seminar phase of the Field Experience:
   1. Establishing rapport with clients
   2. Determining reasons why those attempting to aid the disadvantaged are often rejected

3. Factors that lead to the disadvantaged resenting and/or attempting to exploit the helping hand
4. Methods of selling oneself to the disadvantaged
5. Inadequacies, fears, prejudices, and misconceptions felt by the student when working with the disadvantaged
6. The responsibility of the disadvantaged for his own condition
7. The adequacy of society's attempt to fulfill its responsibility to the disadvantaged
8. Evaluation of training at the unskilled and semiskilled level to provide a permanent solution for the problems of the disadvantaged
9. Industry's *responsibility* in solving the problems of the disadvantaged
10. Feasibility of the poor participating in the administration of programs aimed at helping the poor

Note: The field coordinator will serve primarily as a model for those students in his charge. Insofar as he is exemplary in his functioning as a field coordinator, students will learn through contact with him how such a coordinator can function effectively. Specifically, the field coordinator must be a resource man, a contact man, a teacher, and a counselor. As a resource man he is aware of opportunities that exist, the agencies and the services they provide. As a contact man he is able to place the student in the agencies by having acquaintance with the appropriate persons and having gained their confidence through prior contacts. As a teacher the coordinator must attempt as much as possible to structure the learning experience of the student and familiarize him with basic principles and sources of information appropriate to his experience. As a counselor the field coordinator must help the student work out personal problems that may have been created from this experience.

SEMINAR IN LEARNING, DEVELOPMENT, AND MEASUREMENT

(Four Credits)

Seminar Description—An introduction to the basic theories and concepts of the psychology of learning, human development, and educational psychological tests, measurement, and evaluation with application of these basic theories and concepts to existing learning problems prevalent among culturally disadvantaged youth.

Need for the Seminar—In order to teach culturally disadvantaged youth, one must understand their basic learning problems. Such problems stem from learning experiences and particular aspects of development which are common in a disadvantaged environment; furthermore, these problems have definite implications for testing and measurement with this population. In order to understand the particular learning problems of the disadvantaged, students have a need to know the basic concepts of learning, development, and measurement which help to understand the dynamics of a specific population. Therefore, the students have the following specific needs:

1. To be exposed to some of the concepts which have evolved from the learning laboratory of the psychologists
2. To be exposed to some of the basic teachings in the field of human development
3. To be exposed to some basic concepts of human measurement
4. To be aware of the specific learning problems of the disadvantaged
5. To be able to apply the concepts of learning, development, and measurement to the specific learning problems of the disadvantaged in order to gain insight into these problems and be better prepared to cope with them

Seminar Objectives—The Seminar in Learning, Development, and Measurement will be directed toward the following objectives:

1. To provide the student with knowledge of some basic concepts in the psychology of learning
2. To provide the student with knowledge of some basic concepts in human development
3. To provide the student with knowledge of some basic concepts in educational measurement
4. To make the student aware of some of the special learning problems of the disadvantaged
5. To help the student understand the dynamics of these learning problems and their causes based on learning, development, and measurement concepts

Procedure—The Seminar in Learning, Development, and Measurement will be offered on the time equivalency of a four-credit course for one semester. It is recommended that the seminar be conducted by three individuals—one who has a familiarity with and a commitment to the principles of learning theory, one who has a familiarity with human development including emotional as well as intellectual development, and one who has a familiarity with measurement, testing, and evaluation in an educational context.

The instructor in charge of the seminar should be a psychologist with an awareness of and commitment to the problems of education.

This seminar should be closely coordinated with the seminar on Educational Processes for Teaching the Disadvantaged and the Educational Practicum; all three will be undertaken concomitantly. Theory that will be generated in this seminar should be clearly tied in with practice as discussed in the Educational Processes for Teaching the Disadvantaged seminar, and as carried out in the Educational Practicum. Experiences in Processes and Practicum should be cited in the Seminar in Learning, Development, and Measurement in order to bring the applicability of the conceptual approach into sharper focus.

COURSE OUTLINE

Unit I. Basic Concepts of Learning

Purpose: To provide the student with a knowledge of some of the essential concepts used to explain learning phenomena as a prerequisite to applying these concepts to specific learning problems. Basic concepts will be presented in such a manner that their general implications for education will be constantly highlighted.

Topics for Discussion

A. Parameters of learning
   1. Conditioning and associative learning
   2. Extinction, generalization, discrimination
   3. Reinforcement
   4. Forgetting

B. Types of learning and conditions under which they occur
   1. Signal learning
   2. Stimulus-response learning
   3. Chaining
   4. Verbal association
   5. Multiple discrimination
   6. Concept learning
   7. Principle learning
   8. Problem-solving

C. Some selected learning theories
   1. Hull—drive, habit strength, inhibition, goal gradient, delay of reinforcement, secondary drive and reinforcement
   2. Thorndike—laws of effect, exercise, readiness
   3. Tolman—learning of meaning, latent learning
   4. Skinner—intermittent reinforcement

Unit II. Basic Concepts of Human Development

Purpose: To provide the student with a knowledge of some of the essential concepts used to explain developmental phenomena as a prerequisite to applying these concepts to specific developmental problems engendered by the environment. Basic concepts will be presented in such a manner that their general implications for education will be constantly highlighted.

Topics for Discussion

A. Development is not genetically preordained (nor intelligence fixed by genetic factors).
   1. The case for genetic predeterminism
   2. The case against genetic predeterminism

B. Phases in the development of the intellect
   1. Early motor development
   2. Preverbal and preoperational thought
   3. Stage of concrete operations
   4. Stage of formal operation

C. The development of the ego and moral development
   1. Infantile sexuality
   2. The emergence of identity
   3. The emergence of morality

D. Career development
   1. Adolescence as exploration
   2. The transition from school to work
   3. The trial process
   4. Period of establishment
   5. Maintenance stage
   6. Years of decline

Unit III. The Essentials of Measurement

Purpose: To provide the student with a knowledge of some of the essential concepts upon which tests and measurements on human beings are based, along with a knowledge of test construction both for individual and program evaluation. The use of these concepts and their limitations in actual situations will be dealt with later.

Topics for Discussion

A. The parameters of measurement evaluation and interpretation
   1. Item analysis: technique and purpose
   2. Reliability (of tests and of human beings used as measuring instruments)
   3. Validity: content, concurrent, predictive, construct (emphasis on content validity)
   4. Norms, standard scores, and standardizing population

B. The development of a test for evaluating students or programs
   1. Stating educational objectives
   2. Construction of test items
   3. Evaluation of test items
   4. How to use the test to evaluate students' performances
   5. How to use the test to evaluate the effect of the program or curriculum (the content validity approach)

C. Standardized tests
   1. Individual and group intelligence tests (verbal and nonverbal)
   2. Tests of aptitudes and abilities
   3. Tests of achievement
   4. Other types of tests
   5. How to find and assess a standardized test

Unit IV. The Learning of the Culturally Disadvantaged: Competing Rewards and Their Immediacy

Purpose: To present the view that culturally disadvantaged students are often biologically disadvantaged as well and therefore will apply their efforts to earn rewards that will satisfy their biological needs; they will also be inclined more toward immediate reinforcement rather than working toward long-term goals. These phenomena will be treated as a learning phenomenon.

Topics for Discussion

A. Nature of the problem
    1. Being hungry affects classroom performance (Breckenridge, Vincent, Schorr)
    2. What is being learned has no apparent application in the immediate future
    3. The student would rather be out earning a living

B. Applicable learning principles
    1. Hull—delay of reinforcement, goal gradient (Hilgard)
    2. Thorndike—law of effect
    3. Hull—learning based on drive reduction; notion of competing reinforcements (Hilgard)

C. Supporting evidence relating to the culturally disadvantaged
    1. LeShan's study
    2. Mischel's study

D. Why does the problem exist and what can be done about it (in learning terms)?
    1. Provide the student with quick feedback
    2. Relate the school experience to real life experiences

Unit V. The Development and Measurement of Intelligence in the Culturally Disadvantaged

Purpose: To help the students understand why culturally disadvantaged youth often score lower on conventional intelligence tests; to explain why a culturally impoverished environment often leads to a lesser developed intelligence; to emphasize the limitations in intelligence testing; to seek some remedies for this situation.

Topics for Discussion

A. Lower measured intelligence among the disadvantaged as a function of experience
    1. The work of Klineberg and Pettigrew

B. Particular experiences that are lacking and their effects
    1. The importance of stimulation (Ausubel, Bloom, Hunt, Wolf, Deutsch)
    2. Developmental problems and language learning (John, Bernstein)
    3. Problems in conceptual development (Siller)

C. The effects are not irreversible
    1. General statement (Hunt)
    2. Work with the mentally retarded (Dennis, Skeels & Dyd, Wellman)
    3. Work with the disadvantaged (Boger)

D. The deficit is cumulative
    1. Why (Deutsch, Krugman, Osborne)?
    2. Implications

E. What can the classroom teacher do?
    1. Teach at the perceptual level
    2. Converse with students
    3. Relate concepts to students' experiences
    4. Field trips: new experiences

F. What kind of program do we need?
    1. Early enrichment (Headstart)
    2. Educational TV (Brazziel & Terrell)
    3. Remedial services (Krugman, Schreiber, Shaw)

G. The implications for intelligence measurement
    1. We need culture-free instruments.
    2. Is it valid to measure intelligence?
    3. How can we assess potential for learning? Should we?
    4. How do IQ data bias the teacher?

Unit VI. Achievement Motivation and Learning Among the Culturally Disadvantaged

Purpose: To introduce the students to the concept of achievement motivation; to discuss where it comes from; to consider why it is often low among the disadvantaged and how their experiences may account for this; to discuss what can be done about it.

Topics for Discussion

A. What is achievement motivation?
    1. Presentation of the concept (McClelland, Atkinson)

B. Where does it come from?
    1. Associated with middle class (McClelland, Rosen)
    2. Based on rewarding success and punishing failure (McClelland)
    3. Enhanced by training (Winterbottom, Rosen and D'Andrade)
    4. Supported by parents (Kahl)

C. Why is it low among the disadvantaged?
    1. Different class ethic
    2. Lack of opportunity for success
    3. High frequency of punishments (Bronfenbrenner)
    4. Inappropriate models

D. What can be done about it?
   1. The use of successive approximations to shape behavior (Skinner)
   2. Frequent use of rewards for even minimal successes utilizes successive approximations technique (these youth are success starved).
   3. Avoidance of punishment: punishment does not lead to extinction of punished behavior (Estes); it often leads to fear of failure (Atkinson).
   4. Presentation of tasks of graded degree of difficulty in sequence from easy to difficult
   5. Use of tangible rewards (Zigler and DeLabry)
   6. Use of objective criticism (Lewin et al.)

Unit VII. The Learning of Attitudes Among the Culturally Disadvantaged

Purpose: To acquaint the student with the nature of the attitudes of culturally disadvantaged youth toward self, others, and society and their bases; to discuss ways in which such attitudes can be altered through learning intervention.

Topics for Discussion

A. Attitudes of the culturally disadvantaged toward self, others, and society
   1. Negativism, fatalism, and cynicism
   2. Psychopathic, antisocial, and delinquent behavior
   3. Low aspiration and self-expectations; low self-concept

B. The bases for these attitudes—how they are learned
   1. Social status and social experiences (Hieronymus)
   2. Rejection (Ausubel and Ausubel, Goff)

C. What can the teacher do to change attitudes?
   1. The teacher as model (Witty)
   2. Student participation and the development of involvement and responsibility (Lewin; Lewin, Lippitt and White; Coch and French)
   3. Role playing as a basis for learning new attitudes (King and Janis; Brehm)
   4. The use of praise and approval: rewards as the basis for learning new attitudes
   5. Programmed success as the basis for elevating level of aspiration: rewards as the basis for new learning (Sears)
   6. Approach-avoidance conflict with regard to education: its reduction through reducing avoidance tendencies and fear (Dollard and Miller; Brown)
   7. The differential treatment technique: react to individual differences (Hunt)

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1. Ausubel, D. P. "How Reversible Are the Cognitive and Motivational Effects of Cultural Deprivation? Implications for Teaching the Culturally Deprived Child" (paper read at a conference on the teaching of the culturally deprived child, Buffalo, New York, 1963).

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3. Bloom, B.S. Stability and Change in Human Characteristics. New York: John Wiley and Sons, 1964.

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EDUCATIONAL PROCESSES FOR TEACHING THE DISADVANTAGED YOUTH

(Four Credits)

Course Description—This course is a composite of selected educational processes such as teaching methodology, program development, curriculum development, and evaluation with special emphasis on the teaching of the disadvantaged youth. The course is an integrating experience in teacher education that draws upon the disciplines of psychology, sociology, anthropology, economics, and educational pedagogy for its content, basic educational procedures, and organizational structure. This integration is achieved in the processes used in the conduct of the class.

Need for the Course—The Educational Processes course is designed to provide the educational framework in which the previous psychological, sociological, and behavioral experiences are brought into the context of the school program and the individual laboratory.

The basic need for the course is one of establishing a background for the teachers of the disadvantaged in the ordering of and planning for educational experiences that provide for maximum effectiveness in teaching and programming for the student. Specific needs are as follows:

1. Such teachers will have need for a broad range of understanding and capability in a number of instructional methods
2. Such teachers will need a broad and integrated perception of curriculum organization, curriculum development processes, and factors related to curriculum change
3. Such teachers will need an understanding of the program potentials that exist in vocational and occupational education
4. Such teachers will need broader and deeper capability in the areas of program and curriculum evaluation

Course Objectives—The Educational Processes course will be directed toward the following objectives:

1. To broaden the student's understanding in the area of curriculum development
2. To broaden the student's understanding in the area of program planning and execution
3. To enable the teacher to use effectively a number of different methods of teaching as appear appropriate for students of varying backgrounds and abilities
4. To enable the teacher to use a wide range of instructional media as appear appropriate for the teaching of the disadvantaged
5. To enable the teacher to design learning experiences as required for a wide range of student abilities as well as social differences

6. To enable the teacher to use effectively a number of evaluation and measurement techniques in appraising educational progress
7. To enable the teacher to use community (sociological and economic) data in the establishment of direction for educational experiences of the disadvantaged
8. To articulate the nature, function, and processes involved in the education of the disadvantaged

Procedure—The Educational Processes course will be offered on the time equivalency of a four-credit course for one semester.

It is recommended that the course be conducted on a seminar basis with a multidisciplinary faculty involvement. Such an approach will involve the disciplines of psychology, sociology, anthropology, and special education. These disciplines will be used as the particular topics under discussion warrant their involvement.

The instructor in charge of the Educational Processes seminar will be a vocational teacher educator with training and experience in the areas of curriculum and methodology. Special consultants and guest speakers who are practitioners in the schools for the disadvantaged would be called into the seminars to provide a perspective in direct association with the central problems involved with the handling of such youth.

Community agencies such as the employment service, neighborhood youth clubs, welfare units, and charitable organizations would be represented on panels or in discussion sessions to establish direction to, as well as understanding of, the problem of educating the disadvantaged.

The Educational Processes experiences should be coordinated with the Educational Practicum course. This would be especially appropriate in connection with the study of methods and program development. It is recommended that the students be given opportunity to discuss and/or demonstrate certain methods or procedures they have found to be effective. Films and other educational media should be used where appropriate.

COURSE OUTLINE

Unit I. Curriculum Development

Purpose: The Curriculum Development unit is intended to establish a framework into which the total program of educational experiences for the disadvantaged may evolve.

Topics for Discussion

A. Bases for curriculum decisions
   1. The nature of the student to be served
   2. The objectives and purposes of the school
   3. The social and cultural values of the community
   4. The teacher's level of participation in the various phases of curriculum development and implementation
   5. The attitudes, aspirations, and values existing in the community and among the employers of the product of the school.

B. Principles of curriculum development

C. Curriculum change and innovation

D. Curricular patterns appropriate for the education of the disadvantaged

E. Curricular variations based upon the location of vocational education in the school
   1. Separate vocational schools
   2. Vocational schools as a part of the comprehensive high school
   3. Area vocational centers sharing time with the regular high school
   4. Occupational schools
   5. Vocational-technical schools
   6. Post-secondary schools

Unit II. Program Development

Purpose: This unit is intended to enable the student to develop background and understanding in the nature and process of program development for the disadvantaged.

Topics for Discussion

A. The nature and process of educational program planning

B. Community involvement in program planning

C. Factors influencing the development of a program

D. **Programs of special significance to the education of the disadvantaged Examples:**
   1. **The Carrollton School, Baltimore, Maryland**
   2. **The Octavius Catto Public School, Philadelphia, Pennsylvania**

E. **Research in the area of program planning and administration**

F. **The "Cluster Concept" program**

G. **Work-study programs**

H. **Cooperative programs**

I. **Placement and follow-up**

Unit III. Methods of Teaching

Purpose: The Method of Teaching unit is designed to acquaint the teacher with a number of instructional procedures appropriate to a wide variety of student ability as well as a wide range of educational objectives.

Topics for Discussion

A. **Methodology and Educational Perspective**

B. **Teaching with the use of Instructional Aids**

C. **Teaching using the Unit Approach**

D. **Teaching using the Problem Approach**

E. **Teaching using the Individual Project Approach**

F. **Teaching using the Group Approach**
   1. **The Group Project**
   2. **The Line Production**

G. **Teaching and learning through Role Playing**

H. **Teaching using the Research and Experimentation Approach**

I. **Teaching with Programmed Instructional Materials**

J. **Teaching with Instruction Sheets**

K. **The Discovery Method of teaching**

L. **Team Teaching concepts and procedures**

M. **Seminar and Conference procedures in teaching**

Unit IV. Program and Curriculum Evaluation

Purpose: This unit is intended to increase the teacher's effectiveness in the area of program and curricular evaluation.

Topics for Discussion

A. Principles and concepts of educational evaluation

B. Evaluation based upon achievement of objectives or proposed outcomes

C. Evaluation based upon placement and performance on the job

D. Evaluation based upon immediate and long-range goals

E. Evaluation and the literature in the field

F. Research findings in vocational and occupational program evaluation

G. Community studies related to the evaluation of vocational education

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(Chapter V, "The Life Situations Learners Face," pages 95-299.)
(Chapter VII, "The Whole School Contributes to Curriculum Development," pages 267-406.)
(Chapter VIII, "School and Community Work Together in Curriculum Development," pages 406-431.)

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(Chapter X, "What Are the Tests the Curriculum Must Meet?" pages 544-554.)

EDUCATIONAL PRACTICUM
FOR TEACHING DISADVANTAGED YOUTH
(Four Credits)

Course Description—The practicum is designed to bring to fruition the experiences and competencies developed in the teacher training sequence for master teachers of disadvantaged youth, i.e., theory into practice. The objective of the practicum is to provide a broad range of actual teaching and administrative experiences as well as experiences with the ancillary services that are associated with schools serving disadvantaged youth. Integrated with the practicum is a weekly seminar designed to discuss and resolve common as well as unique problems encountered by the teacher trainees.

Need for the Course—The Educational Practicum is the cap-stone of the sequence of experiences designed to train teachers of disadvantaged youth. It provides a laboratory setting to put into action educational activities involving the teacher trainee's background experiences in such disciplines as social psychology, psychology, sociology, anthropology, and education. The Educational Practicum course is designed to provide: firsthand experience in a school setting with disadvantaged youth; observation of teachers and other school personnel working with and teaching disadvantaged youth; opportunity to work with and teach disadvantaged youth under supervision of school personnel and university supervisors; a sense of responsibility and understanding of the role of the school as a "change agent" in our society.

Course Objectives—The Educational Practicum should be organized in a manner designed to achieve the following objectives:

1. To assist the student in understanding the "world of the disadvantaged" in relation to the school setting
2. To provide the student with an awareness of the multi-responsibilities of the educational system as it relates to the disadvantaged
3. To provide the student an opportunity to observe a master teacher in the teacher-learner process
4. To make the student aware of the problems experienced administrators and pupil-personnel faculty face as they involve themselves with disadvantaged youth
5. To gain teaching experience under the supervision of an experienced teacher or, if in an administrative or ancillary area, to gain experience in the particular area under the supervision of experienced personnel

6. To provide competencies in curriculum development and revision
7. To develop an awareness of the need to use a number of different methods of teaching which appear appropriate for students of varying backgrounds and abilities
8. To obtain experiences and competency in using a wide range of instructional media appropriate for the teaching of the disadvantaged
9. To become aware of and acquire competencies in designing learning experiences required for a range of abilities and social differences
10. To use and become aware of a number of evaluation and measurement techniques in appraising students' progress, as well as self-evaluation
11. To understand the need for and experience in using community data and resources in the establishment of direction for educational experiences for the disadvantaged
12. To become aware of the need for interacting with fellow students and their supervisors pertaining to philosophical, pedagogical, and other areas of common concern which have evolved as a result of the trainee's practicum experiences.

Procedure—The Educational Practicum course will be offered on the time equivalency of a four-credit course for one semester.

It is recommended that the Educational Practicum be supervised by several members of the program staff each dealing with a small number of students. These university supervisors should have experience and familiarity with public school settings.

The Educational Practicum experience should be coordinated with the Educational Processes course and the Seminar in Learning, Development, and Measurement. The curriculum was designed so that these three experiences would run concurrently enabling each to supplement the other. A suggested over-all organizational pattern for the practicum is given below:

1. A general orientation including the responsibilities of student teaching should be held. This orientation should be under the direction of the university supervisor in cooperation with the master teachers and/or school supervisors.
2. Assignment of trainees to the master teacher or supervisor
3. Observation of school areas and activities other than the trainee's area of specialization
4. Observation of trainee's master teacher or supervisor
5. Opportunity for the trainee to teach in his own area of competence

6. Daily conference with master teacher during the teaching experience phase for the purpose of:
    a. Discussing specific problems which have arisen
    b. Evaluating the trainee's daily planning
    c. Self-evaluation by the trainee
7. Periodic observation of the trainee by the university supervisor
8. Weekly seminars involving one or more of the master teachers, the university supervisor, and the professors responsible for the Seminar in Learning, Development, and Measurement and the Educational Processes course. The purpose of this seminar would be to discuss common and unique problems and to devise ways of alleviating them.
9. Final evaluation made cooperatively by the master teacher, the university supervisor, and the teacher trainee

COURSE OUTLINE

Unit I. The Observation Phase

Purpose: The objective of this phase is to provide an opportunity for the teacher trainee to observe a master teacher working with the disadvantaged youth, to become acclimated, and to get to know the students.

A. The following are typical observations and goals the teacher trainee should realize from this phase of the practicum:
    1. The personal attributes of the cooperating teacher or supervisor such as:
        a) Effective management of time
        b) Personal appearance and grooming as an identity model
        c) Alertness and adaptability
        d) Voice quality as a cue device in rewarding or disciplining
        e) Other methods of rewarding appropriate behavior
    2. Gradually make student contact and learn student names—be friendly but professional
    3. Becoming familiar with:
        a) Where materials are kept
        b) Available materials
        c) Sources of professional aids
        d) Other curricular programs and facilities within the school
    4. Studying the learning process as it relates to the physical aspects of the program such as:
        a) Arrangement of the classroom
        b) Maps, chalk board, etc.
        c) Lighting, heating, ventilation

5. Studying the learning process as it relates to the master teacher's involvement in:
    - a) Motivating the disadvantaged
    - b) Providing for individual differences through subject matter selection, building on previous experience of the pupils, use of teaching aids, use of questioning techniques, use of general classroom management and routine, organization of teaching units, etc.
6. Studying the learning process as it relates to the disadvantaged youth regarding their:
    - a) Attention and participation
    - b) Interest
    - c) Individual differences
    - d) Involvement in individual and group work
7. Analyzing the observation phase to provide opportunity for the teacher trainee to:
    - a) Identify methods and techniques which contribute to the effective teaching of the disadvantaged
    - b) Interpret and analyze the laws of learning as they apply to the disadvantaged

Unit II. The Teaching Experience Phase

Purpose: The objective of this phase is to provide the teacher trainee with the opportunity to apply the techniques, methods, and knowledge gained in the Seminar in Learning, Development, and Measurement, in the Educational Processes course, and in the observation phase of the Educational Practicum.

A. During the teaching experience phase the teacher trainee should become involved in:
    1. Using various methods appropriate for teaching the disadvantaged such as:
        - a) The unit approach
        - b) The problem approach
        - c) The individual project approach
        - d) The discovery method
        - e) Team teaching
    2. Using various techniques and materials appropriate for teaching the disadvantaged such as:
        - a) Role playing
        - b) Programmed instruction
        - c) Work experience activities
        - d) A variety of audio and visual materials
    3. Building and/or using evaluation procedures to assess the progress of students

4. Daily planning for lessons to be taught (these should be evaluated cooperatively by the teacher trainee and the master teacher)
5. Using and understanding the value and shortcomings of cumulative and anecdotal records as they relate to providing information for more effective teaching
6. Face to face contact with parents or guardians of the pupils
7. Having an experience in working out the process and procedures necessary for a work-study program for one or more pupils

Unit III. Final Evaluation

Purpose: The purpose of this evaluation is to provide a final learning experience for the teacher trainee. Continuous evaluation will have taken place throughout the practicum through conferences with the master teacher and the university supervisor.

A. The final evaluation will be made cooperatively by the master teacher, the university supervisor, and the teacher trainee. The evaluation should include at least the following:
   1. Personal qualities
      a) Emotional stability
      b) Adaptability
      c) Cooperation
      d) Stamina
      e) Speech
      f) Appearance
   2. Teacher-pupil relationships
      a) Classroom atmosphere
      b) Pupil freedom
      c) Pupil control
   3. Classroom teaching
      a) Effective planning and preparation
      b) Effective presentation and involvement
      c) Adequate record keeping and follow-up
      d) Attention to special needs
      e) Handling of routine matters
   4. Out-of-class responsibilities
      a) Individual attention to pupils who have problems—school and personal
      b) Participation in school related activities
   5. Professional relationships
      a) Attitude toward total school program
      b) Cooperation with school staff
      c) Involvement with and attitudes toward parents and the community
   6. Seminar participation

Unit IV. Seminar Phase

Purpose: The purpose of the seminar would be to provide an opportunity to discuss common and unique problems arising out of the practicum experience and to devise ways of solving these problems.

A. The seminar will be conducted on a weekly basis throughout the duration of the practicum.

B. The seminar will be conducted on a team basis with master teachers, the university supervisor, and the professors of the Seminar in Learning, Development, and Measurement and the Educational Processes course comprising the team. The university supervisor will coordinate the seminar.

Suggested Agencies

The following agencies are submitted as suggested agencies for the placement of students for the practicum experience. The list is suggestive, no attempt has been made to provide an exhaustive list:

A. The Job Corps—men and women

B. Skilled Centers (MDTA)

C. Specific programs at the high school level designed for the disadvantaged, e. g., the Carrolton School of Baltimore

D. Multi-Occupational Programs (MDTA)

E. Special demonstration programs

F. Residential schools similar to those approved under P. L. 88-210, Section 14

G. Discipline schools where majority of youth in attendance are also disadvantaged, e. g., the Octavius Catto School of the Philadelphia Public School System

SEMINAR IN PROFESSIONAL ISSUES
(Three Credits)

Seminar Description—The Seminar in Professional Issues is a critical and intensive analysis of current issues in vocational education as they apply to the disadvantaged person.

Need for the Seminar—The purpose of the Seminar in Professional Issues is to integrate and relate the issues that arise out of the experiences of the curriculum directly to the field of vocational education.

Objectives—It is anticipated that the following goals will be realized in this offering:

1. To provide a "bridge experience" between the professional training and the profession
2. To provide opportunity to share ideas, to discuss issues, and to offer viewpoints concerning current issues in the field as they relate to the disadvantaged
3. To evaluate the experiences received in the total curriculum

Procedure—The Seminar in Professional Issues should be offered on the time equivalency of a three-credit course for one semester.

The seminar is to be conducted by the students under the guidance of the seminar supervisor (preferably the director of the program). It should be an experience that is not preplanned but where the students themselves determine the contents and issues of the seminar. The emphasis should be on student centered discussion and student planned content.

COURSE OUTLINE

Unit I. Suggested Topics

Purpose: It should be emphasized that the seminar content should grow out of the experiences and issues that have evolved from the totality of experiences both academic and practical. Thus the topics will be germane to these experiences and many will arise out of the on-going interaction of the seminar.

A. As a guide, the following are offered as possible examples of issues that may develop in the seminar:
    1. Automation and its impact on semiskilled and unskilled workers
    2. Grouping practices and integrating the disadvantaged youth into a total school environment
    3. Hiring practices and the minority groups

4. **Educational programs for the disadvantaged**
5. **Means of dealing with peer influences**
6. **Motivation and the disadvantaged youth**
7. **Testing as a selection device**
8. **The degree to which society is adequately fulfilling its responsibility to the disadvantaged**
9. **The degree to which the disadvantaged person is responsible for his own condition**
10. **The advisability of the poor participating in the administration of poverty programs**
11. **The advisability of training the disadvantaged for semi-skilled and unskilled jobs that may be eliminated by automation**
12. **The guaranteed annual wage**
13. **Work and/or leisure**
14. **Police protection in urban communities**
15. **Sex, drugs, and life**
16. **Crime and class**
17. **Vocational versus general education**
18. **Societal rewards and their distribution**

INTEGRATING OPTION

Master's Project or Evaluative Paper
(Three Credits) (No Credit)

Rationale—The Integrating Option provides a dual track for the curriculum. In some institutions a Master's project is a mandated requirement for the Master's degree; in other institutions this requirement may be waived. Therefore, both are presented in the schematic and in the courses of study. In those institutions electing the Master's project it is recommended that three (3) credits be granted for this endeavor. For those electing the Evaluation Paper it is recommended that no credit be granted. The committee recommends the Evaluation Paper track wherever possible.

Integrating Option Description—Master's Project—This is an individual investigation, study, critical analysis, evaluation, or pilot project concerned with the disadvantaged youth. Each student develops, carries out, and reports the experience in a Master's paper.

Integrating Option Description—Evaluative Paper—This is an evaluation by the individual of the total experiences received in his Master's program.

The Need—This option provides a means for the student to integrate the experiences obtained through the medium of the Master's program. The emphasis will be varied, however, depending upon the track selected.

Objectives—The Integrating Option is aimed at achieving certain outcomes. These are expressed as objectives such as those listed below:

Master's Project

1. To provide the candidate with an opportunity to gather data in an operational setting
2. To provide the candidate with the opportunity to use the concepts learned in the classroom and in the field experiences to solve a practical problem previously identified
3. To provide opportunity to assess the candidate's performance and application of concepts learned under actual conditions as a practitioner and problem-solver

Evaluative Paper

1. To provide the candidate with an opportunity to review his experiences and to evaluate the worthwhileness of these experiences

2. To identify the strengths of the curriculum
3. To identify the weaknesses of the curriculum
4. To identify areas whereby the curriculum can be improved and made more functional

Procedure—The course will be structured for each individual being cognizant of his area of interest.

COURSE OUTLINE

Option I. Master's Project

A. The project will be structured to provide individual consultation with an appointed adviser.
   1. Identification of a problem area to be studied
   2. Approval of problem by candidate's committee
   3. Execution of study developed to solve problem
   4. Presentation of problem via a Master's paper

Option II. Evaluative Paper

A. The paper will be guided by oral and written criteria.
   1. Student evaluates entire curriculum in terms of what he obtained.
   2. Student evaluates entire curriculum in terms of how it failed to meet his needs.
   3. Student makes recommendations for improvement of the curriculum.
   4. Student anticipates ways and means the concepts learned could be applied to his home-school situation.

RECOMMENDATIONS

A most important element of any curriculum or program of studies is an evaluation of its effectiveness. To a minor degree this has been built into the curriculum under the aegis of the Evaluative Paper. However, there is no assurance that this track of the Integrating Option will be utilized by all institutions which elect to use this curriculum. Even where the Evaluative Paper is used, it is recognized that an evaluation of the scope and depth necessary would not result. Therefore, it is recommended that those implementing the curriculum be cognizant of the need to develop adequate evaluation procedures.

APPENDIX

PREPARING

TEACHERS OF

DISADVANTAGED YOUTH

THE DEPARTMENT OF
VOCATIONAL - TECHNICAL EDUCATION
GRADUATE SCHOOL OF EDUCATION
RUTGERS - THE STATE UNIVERSITY

PREPARING TEACHERS OF DISADVANTAGED YOUTH

A SERIES OF PAPERS REPRESENTING AN INTERDISCIPLINARY APPROACH TO THE PROBLEM

JOHN L. O'BRIAN, EDITOR

PROJECT SPONSORED UNDER
P.L. 88-210
THE VOCATIONAL EDUCATION ACT OF 1963
SUBPART A, SECTION 4(C)
CONTRACT NUMBER OE6-85-047

THE DEPARTMENT OF
VOCATIONAL - TECHNICAL EDUCATION
GRADUATE SCHOOL OF EDUCATION
RUTGERS - THE STATE UNIVERSITY

FOREWORD

Youth with special needs, as defined throughout this publication, describes those persons who are sometimes called potential dropouts, disinterested, reluctant, disadvantaged, alienated, or culturally deprived. They may be slow learners and some may possess average or above average ability, but are low achievers. However, they are not those youth formally associated with special education. Such a definition, if we stop to think about it, encompasses a vast number of youth who make up our secondary educational program. It has been said they number at least 30 per cent and projections have been made as high as 60 to 70 per cent of the school population. If arrived at by means of deduction it could be assumed 30 per cent would be in the college preparatory offering, another 30 per cent would be in the more traditional vocational programs (including business education), leaving the remaining 40 per cent the youth with special needs—now usually absorbed in the nondescript offering known as the general program.

The facts of the matter are that educators have for too long ignored the needs of this sizeable percentage of youth. Worthwhile programs are not available to them and they are left to cafeteria-shop from courses that are designed for other purposes and to wander aimlessly through their final years of education. Yet, at the same time, we know well that each and every one of them, upon graduation or early severance from their formal education, will have to assume a productive role in our society.

Not only have we ignored the curriculum aspects of the problem, but even more pressing, we've neglected to prepare teachers to cope with the student with special needs. Serious questions can be raised as to the competency of the traditional subject matter oriented teacher to function well with such students. More appropriately perhaps, a new breed of teacher who is well versed in the behavioral sciences must be developed.

Statistics found in the ensuing papers make the challenge to educators obvious. John O'Brian and the group who have "looked into this problem" present the hard cold facts of the situation as well as some plausible solutions. Their contribution is significant.

Carl J. Schaefer
Chairman, Department
Vocational-Technical Education

PREFACE

The papers presented in this publication represent a preliminary aspect of a research project entitled "The Development of a Master Teacher Training Curriculum for Teachers of Occupational Level Training Programs." The project was funded under Section 4(c) of the Vocational Education Act of 1963.

The primary objective of the study was to develop a Master's degree curriculum to prepare teachers to teach youth with special needs. A first aspect of the study was to assemble an interdisciplinary committee whose members had extensive experience with the disadvantaged youth. Each committee member then developed and presented a paper at a Colloquium held at Rutgers - The State University. These papers are found in Part I of this publication. The central theme of each paper was to relate the contributions the discipline represented by the author could make to the preparation of teachers who would be working with youth with special needs.

Part II of this publication represents the second aspect of the project. A group of practitioners, persons responsible for operation of programs for youth with special needs, or programs preparing teachers of youth with special needs, presented papers representing their practitioner points of view. The following points were considered: 1) a brief description of the program and its objectives, 2) characteristics of the youth that constitute the student body, 3) the needs of the youth that must be met by the school, 4) characteristics that teachers of the youth with special needs should possess, and 5) the skills, knowledges, and understandings needed by teachers of these youth. These papers were presented at a second Colloquium held at the University.

The papers presented formed the basis of discussions which led to the development of the teacher preparation curriculum for teachers of disadvantaged youth. Persons interested in further information concerning the curriculum should contact the United States Office of Education or the principal investigator.

Numerous individuals have made significant contributions to the study. Special recognition is due to the members of the Department of Vocational-Technical Education of Rutgers University and to Dr. Carl J. Schaefer for his many suggestions. Mention should be made of Gail Lazar and Carolyn Slater for their secretarial competency and Mr. Benjamin Shapiro for his aid in relation to layout and format for this publication.

John L. O'Brian
Principal Investigator

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THE GUIDANCE ROLE OF A MASTER TEACHER IN A VOCATIONAL CURRICULUM FOR YOUTH WHO COME FROM THE "UNDERCLASS"

ARNOLD BUCHHEIMER

THE CITY UNIVERSITY OF NEW YORK

I should like to address myself to the broad question: What can guidance contribute to the education of those students who would not be attending school:

(1) if employment opportunities were available to them without a high school diploma?
(2) and who have not achieved sufficient incentive to see school attendance as a meaningful experience?
(3) and who are not assimilated and absorbed into the work force by virtue of racial segregation and other barriers imposed by our caste system?
(4) if educators had not made a commitment to educate all children? (Tyler in Schneider, 1965)

When political, psychological, economic, and cultural factors are so overwhelmingly arrayed against some pupils, what is the task and role of those who work in a guidance capacity in a vocational school or, for that matter, in any school? How does the following definition of guidance fit these students?

> . . . guidance helps a student to find order in the complexities of decision making, helps him to enrich his experience by examining it, and helps him to become the conscious artist of his own career. . . (Katz, 1963, p. 59).

Gilbert Wrenn's answer to these two questions is a cautious, helpless, plaintive attempt to relate the needs of these youth to the guidance movement that has evolved for the last fifty years. I was shocked to find one of the sages of the guidance movement so helpless until I read Alan Haber's unpublished manuscript entitled The American Underclass. The array of economic, social, political, and cultural forces against the poor, as cited by Haber, are so overwhelming that one begins to understand Wrenn's qualified view of the guidance function and the economists' open pessimism about the worth and value of an education as we know it for those who belong to the underclass.

Yet, so far as vocational education is concerned, we are in a situation where education and economics meet and consort with each other. In the guidance movement there has been a long dialectic between manpower utilization and self-development—manpower utilization being an economic concept while self-development is more or less a psychological and educational concept. Thus today we are involved in a dialectic between those who are concerned with social change and those who are concerned with individual change. There are those who feel that individual change, however dramatic it may be, will necessarily be dependent on changes in social conditions.

Wrenn (1963) defines guidance as a point of view which is or should be a part of a working philosophy of every school. He thinks that the school counselor should influence others to provide a more meaningful environment, both school and non-school; should modify others' perceptions of urban youth in the direction of better identification and understanding; and, should modify self-perception of urban youth so that they may be able to relate better to others and also to know how to make more adequate use of whatever environmental resources are available to them (Schneider, 1964, p. 193). Wrenn conceives the environment of the counselor as well as the youth with whom he works as three concentric circles, the innermost being the social environment we all live in; the second circle is the educational environment; and the third circle being the psychological environment. Obviously these circles are in constant dynamic interaction with each other. I should like to address myself to the guidance task in each of these environments within a school—any school, vocational, academic, general, elementary, secondary, trade, or technical.

Modification of the Social Environment: So far as the underclass, Negro or white, is concerned, opportunities are more and more limited. These limits are because of obsolescence due to automation, limited occupational mobility due to substandard education and substandard living conditions, and because of our caste and ghetto structure. Guidance and school personnel can be effective in three distinct ways: first, by modifying their own attitudes toward the poor; second, by becoming involved in the many community action programs that are being created and developed at this time under the O. E. O.; and third, by modifying the opportunity structure.

Modification of Personal Attitudes: In our Protestant ethic, the poor are considered a public nuisance, socially disruptive, and morally incorrigible (Haber, p. 12). We value work, thrift, and the survival of the fittest. The poor are obviously unfit. These feelings may be strongest among those who themselves have been recently uplifted from this state of "sinfulness." It does not occur to us that people are poor today because of forces over which they have had little control and for which we of the middle class are directly responsible, and from which we benefit directly. We need to look at our own values, prejudices, and social attitudes and question their validity. This may be a difficult task, and an uncomfortable one. But it's no more uncomfortable or difficult than to ask a slum youth to give up being a junky, become socially responsible, and report to school or work punctually. Adherence to our values, indifference to social plight, and the enjoyment of caste privileges may be equally irresponsible, sinful, and morally reprehensible to those whom we deride as being socially misfit. I am neither a moralist nor a sentimentalist when I speak as I do, but a hard-headed realist. The old song, "She's more to be pitied than censored" in no way pertains. The poor need neither pity nor censure; they resent both. They do need responsibility and public advocacy; they need allies with unlimited commitment. I'd like to think that the guidance person in a school is such an ally, deeply committed against the exploitation of the poor, deeply committed to the eradication of the caste and color line, a person who is wary of viewing poverty and the underclass in terms of the Protestant ethic of work.

Personal Involvement in Community Action Programs: In acting on our commitment, I suggest that we do some psychological moonlighting. The Poverty Programs under the O. E. O. greatly stress community action programs. For our own edification on the conditions of poverty as well as an insight into the aspiration and frustrations of the poor, I suggest that we apply the principle of the tithe to our social involvement, that we give a certain proportion of our time and our professional know-how to these programs. Not because there may be an extra dollar made—this may be voluntary time—but as professionals we owe it to ourselves to become involved at the blood, sweat, and tears level in a great American social enterprise. If we are indeed at war with poverty, then, as in any other war, we must tighten our psychological belt. In this war the sacrifice is not our lives but the abandonment of white middle class smugness and privilege and the attitudes that foster these states of mind. In the poverty programs around the country, especially those geared to the ghetto areas, there is an alarming tendency to involve only those who are themselves of the ghetto culture in the community action programs. I say that this is alarming, not because this practice often has overtones of nepotism and political patronage, but rather because it maintains the caste structure. The principle that "a house divided against itself cannot stand" was eloquently pronounced over a hundred years ago. It would be truly ironic if now, on a different level, under different circumstances, government policy, federal support, and the established institutions aided and abetted the maintenance of the caste structure. The moral imperative of all our civil rights and manpower legislation is to eradicate the underclass and the "other America." Yet it is understandable that the spokesmen for the poor and the "outcaste" would be wary of involving the uncommitted or the outright enemy in their struggle for freedom. It is up to us to show our commitment, especially since our professionalism is needed. Our involvement in community action is essential if we are to be modifiers of the environment; our skills are necessary to bring us closer to the democratic ideal of the Great Society; our indifference is tantamount to resistance to change; and open resistance to change is akin to sabotage in wartime. We have no choice but to become involved. But if we are involved, it must be an involvement of humility and equality rather than one of benevolence and paternalism.

Modifying the Opportunity Structure: "Opportunities are mediated by gate keepers. . . the gate keeper makes ability judgments about an applicant's risk. . ." (Haber, 1965, p. 14). A gate keeper is one who has "direct control of access" (Haber, Ibid). As guidance workers, we control the access route out of the underclass everytime we make a judgment about a youngster, a judgment which is "reality oriented." Every time we do not send an able boy to explore a job opportunity because he may not be hired because of his race, everytime we counsel a child out of a chosen field because his opportunities are limited by discriminatory practice, everytime we counsel a child in terms of our own stereotypic notions of the work force, everytime we participate in discussions which restrict the opportunities of training or induction into the labor force for any reason whatsoever, we commit an act of sabotage in the War on Poverty. We have only one role and one single purpose: to counsel in terms of potential regardless of what the present reality may be. Any action short of counseling, developing, and training for potential is an action against the National and personal interest. Employment restrictions of today may be—will be—the real opportunities of tomorrow.

The only honest, moral, and decent attitude we can take as professionals is to say to each individual youth, "This is what we think you can do; we will train and educate you to do it; and we will use all of the influence and endeavor at our disposal to see to it that you have the opportunity to do what you can do and what you are trained and educated to do."

A SUGGESTED RESOLUTION

Schools have always been the primary force of social mobility and social progress in our society. In the past, they reflected the philosophy of free enterprise and personal achievement and improvement. We are embarking on an age of automation which necessitates social planning on all levels of our economy. An automated society cannot be an unplanned society. Thus, our social emphasis in our schools has to shift from a free-enterprise philosophy to a social-welfare philosophy. Such a shift of necessity leads to a reevaluation of our entire competitive emphasis. We need to reevaluate our status and reward systems in our schools, both for the teacher as well as for the children. So far as the children are concerned, I would urge for the elementary child a total abandonment of special classes and special grouping practices for all those children who do not fall into the school-inadequate category; in other words, heterogeneous grouping for all children whose potential is not hampered by a high degree of emotional disturbance or clear intellectual retardation.

On the other end of the scale, for children who are so clearly superior that their potential and full development augurs social contributions of the magnitude of a Freud, Mozart, Weiner, Einstein, Beethoven, Menuhin, Mendel, Da Vinci, Mills, or Shakespeare, I advocate a completely personalized tutorial educational program with whatever group and social experiences the individual situation requires. All other children should be grouped without regard to intellectual assessment or intellectual achievement.

It would undoubtedly take considerable retraining of administrative and teaching personnel and the general public to abandon the investment in homogeneous grouping. Every classroom in a school should represent the entire range of differences of the educable children within a school—sex differences, class differences, race differences, and intellectual differences.

Secondly, I would recommend a policy of saturation for all children, especially those who are deficient in some way. When children are deficient in reading they should have more reading, rather than less, with new and different approaches. If five periods of English don't seem to do the trick, seven periods might. If seven periods don't eliminate the deficiency, nine might. When a person shows a dietary deficiency, we don't water down the diet further; rather, we supplement and enrich. Educational programs need enrichment rather than watering down. This is not to say that we do not need to start where children are or that all children should end up the same way, but rather that all children need the same commitment and that their differences are an educational challenge rather than an educational handicap. Our curricula and course of study need to be differentiated, but our educational setting needs to be equally accessible and available to all.

Those who are impressed with the mystique of grouping should be reminded that "it does not necessarily follow that organizations designed to simplify the act of teaching through reduced ranges will enhance children's learning" (Buchheimer, 1965, p. 340).

In defense of those who resist the inauguration of heterogeneous grouping, it must be said that class size needs to be reduced to a size where individual attention can be given. On the other hand, it must be emphasized that reduction of class size does not guarantee individual attention or differentiation of educational approach.

The third recommendation I would make is the adoption of a policy inclusion rather than exclusion. I would eliminate the possibility of school exclusion as a punishment. Contrary to Paul Goodman, I would see such a policy as a commitment, an act of faith, rather than as mandatory conscription. I wonder what would happen to the dropout rate or the truancy rate in our schools if pupils were told that as an endorsement of their educability, suspension from school would no longer be used as a disciplinary measure. This policy was adopted by the Greenburgh #3 school system in New York. Their dropout problem is nonexistent.

A fourth recommendation would be to adopt a deliberate policy of color sensitivity rather than color blindness. Let's face it; the problem of teaching the disadvantaged is intimately bound up with the problem of racial discrimination. The Negro believes and knows that the color of your skin does make a difference.

What I mean by color sensitivity is letting the Negro know that we can understand how he feels and that we will do all in our power to take these feelings into consideration.

VOCATIONAL EDUCATION VERSUS GENERAL EDUCATION

It may appear that in advocating the creation of a comprehensive high school I am abandoning vocational education. Not at all! I am extending it. If one of the functions of vocational education is to provide a balanced secondary education, there is no reason why it cannot be received in a regular comprehensive high school. This still leaves open the question of education for a livelihood and the question of vocational competence. Today these are highly variable propositions. We are told by labor and industry that what is wanted today as a criterion for employability is a high school diploma; that vocational training and vocational competence is a function of industry and management or post-high school training in technical schools, community colleges, private trade schools, or special institutes. The Public Education Association of New York declares, "The ultimate goal, however, is to have all high schools operating under a single system and attaining such excellence that the specialized schools of today may no longer be a necessary or a desirable part of public education in New York City" (P. E. A., 1963, p. 15).

They advocate the postponement of vocational skill training until after high school and recognize that workers with a single skill may have increasing difficulty in adapting to the labor market (Ibid., p. 15). On the other hand, let's look at the program of what is called a unit trade high school in New York City. A unit trade school is a school which prepares for employment in the trades of a single industry such as food trades, printing, or aviation.

In some unit trade schools, in addition to mathematics, science, English, and history, a student is required to take courses in basic electricity, woodword, hydraulics, weights and balance, and engines before he takes the courses specifically related to the industry. (This is also true of the diversified trade vocational schools.) The courses for the specific trades are given primarily in the twelfth grade and require special shops and equipment.

One can certainly make a good case for the fact that no one's education is complete if he does not have a working knowledge of motors, electricity, and principles of hydraulics and weights; if he is not able to do basic repair work around the house. Within a few years, as we become more and more automated and there are fewer semiskilled occupations, we may be forced to do our own repair work rather than rely on handymen to do it for us. Mechanical illiteracy may be as much a problem in a few years as reading deficiency is today.

The vocational training within a comprehensive school may be more akin to what is called industrial arts. It is, however, absolutely essential that such a program should involve the entire student body, not merely a special group. Specialized programs requiring special equipment could be housed in special centers. Students could travel to these centers.

Many who question the ideas of comprehensive schools in a large city are concerned about bigness and depersonalization. They feel that segregated patterns can easily exist within a school as well as by segregating within separate schools. This is true! Present educational practices of homogeneous grouping, fixed tracking, and the highly competitive academic emphasis all contribute to de facto segregation by color, caste, and class lines within a school. Individualized programming would help. Programming in accordance with certain educational aims in mind would also help. For example, a boy who is really gifted in mathematics should have the opportunity to take math courses leading to advanced placement in college without being obliged to be equally high in his history performance, or in biology.

A standard high school diploma would help—a diploma without the specification of what kind of program it represented. Anyone who needs to know can ask for the school transcript to get more specific information. Another practice would also help: the school within a school, provided it is organized to include a balanced representation of the various differences that exist within the school population.

I've said much about a balanced education, but little about either education for livelihood or vocational competence. Nor have I said anything, so far, about the potent problem of skill deficiencies in high school. Let me speak of the latter first.

If secondary schools are unable to deal with skill deficiencies that have accumulated throughout elementary and junior high school years, then other institutions have to be found to do the job. One such institution may be a skills center where people of all ages may go to overcome deficiencies. This is an educational cafeteria whose purpose is primarily to offer educational services on an individualized basis for those who need to make up deficiencies in training. Such a center would be staffed by educational consultants who could assess needs and then work out an individualized program of training. The object of the skill center would be to direct the person toward either a formal school program or toward employment.

Now, as to education for a livelihood. Whatever educational approach is used, certain youths need to earn their livelihood at the same time as they attend school. With many it is a matter of economic need. With others it is a matter of self-respect. With others it is a part of the cultural pattern. A fifteen year old Puerto Rican boy recently reported to his counselor that his family treated him differently. They listened to him now. When the counselor asked why this was so, he told her that he now had a part-time job. Manhood is an important value. Manhood implies girl friends, a car, status, and often compensation for school failure. All of these things cost money, and a job is the way to attain them.

Any high school program planning for the needs of youth, especially the needs of poor youth, must take into consideration that the need to attain manhood or womanhood cannot be postponed until after graduation. It is for these youth that work-study programs are essential.

A Mt. Diable, California, school principal sums up his experience with a work-study program:

> Work experience helps in the adjustment of youngsters in an important developmental stage. They learn to adjust to real life situations. They achieve some degree of independence in which they must live with themselves and at the same time get along with other people (Burchill, 1962, p. 41).

If this is the value of a work-study experience, why not make the experience available to all students, not merely to those who are problems to the school? The work-study approach to education is not a new one. It goes back to the continuation centers which are the forerunners of our vocational schools, predating the Smith Hughes Act.

GUIDANCE PERSONNEL AND TRAINING

What kinds of people should staff the schools with which we are concerned? There is no point in reciting the standard requirements of vocational education training or guidance training. You all know them. They have to do, first of all, with competence in a particular vocational area; second, with competence in the academic areas; third, if guidance is a pervasive point of view—it ought to be a developmental point of view; fourth, a teacher should be a person who can be a positive model to children with whom they identify, a person who can be direct without being authoritarian. Most of the recent studies about discipline confirm that discipline is not taught, and behavior is not changed, by a reward and punishment approach to learning. These studies indicate instead that acceptable behavior is learned by the models that children have and the kinds of identification with adults they are able to make. It is especially important that children who have had poor models outside the school have good models within the school.

Fifth, as I have already indicated, it is important that teachers who teach the disadvantaged can identify with them as persons, and with their problems and their condition. This is probably a crucial dimension about which we still have a great deal to learn, an area in which we are most lacking. Sixth, a more specific characteristic is the capacity to deal with hostility without responding defensively or retaliating in a hostile manner. And finally, flexibility, the capacity to meet a child where he is and to start there and help him grow at his own rate.

These characteristics of teachers have been said so often that they sound like educational cliches. However, the last five are more often observed in their breach than in their adherence.

A short time ago I spoke to some of the Job Corps people who are running urban centers. They tell me that they don't find vocational education or public school guidance people very helpful in teaching their vocational education programs or in conducting their guidance activities. It took me a long time to ferret out the basis for their dissatisfaction. Aside from the middle class orientation, so often talked about, there are some other more specific factors which need to be considered.

With regard to the classroom teacher, three factors seemed to be particularly crucial. They were: (1) preoccupation with abstraction; (2) rigidity; and (3) language of condescension. Preoccupation with abstraction seems to mean that there is too much time spent on cerebral activity and not enough time on the physical, the actual concrete involvement with the job (the taking apart of the motor, the handling of the tools, etc.). The people in the Job Corps feel that their most successful experiences involve situations where the physical has preceded the cerebral. This is certainly not a new concept in education; but it is often violated.

By flexibility is meant something similar to what the programmed instruction people are talking about—the possibility of moving through a sequence of learning tasks without a prescribed time period. If, for example, a boy can build his own transistor radio in two weeks, and completes it by September 15th, he should not have to wait until October 15th when the next unit is scheduled to begin. This is "customized" instruction in its most concrete form.

The language of condescension is not my phrase, though I think it very descriptive and appropriate. This is what I alluded to when I spoke of being color sensitive. The man who coined the phrase is, at the present time, developing a glossary of the language of condescension.

Such phrases as "you people" and "boy" might be in this glossary, which should prove a valuable addition to our training.

So far as guidance personnel is concerned, the two crucial characteristics which are necessary to disadvantaged youth seemed to be: (1) a de-emphasis on verbal communication skills and (2) an understanding of primary and secondary relationships. Counselors are apt to demand highly verbal behavior from counselees. The disadvantaged youth is apt not to be very expressive in an interview situation. Thus the formal interview, as we know it, is not apt to be very helpful. What is likely to be more helpful is the frequent short informal contact. This would require the counselor to be highly mobile, to be present in many places, and highly sensitive to situations and incidents as they arise. These incidents could then be dealt with on the spot, in the context in which they arose.

The problem of primary and secondary relationships is related to this point. The counselor and guidance person dealing with children from the underclass has to be much more like the parent than the counselor of a middle class child. This is a broad distinction, but the counselor of the middle class child is probably in the position where his role is one of counteracting parental influence where such influence has been too dominant a force; while the counselor of the child of the underclass is apt to be more like the parent. What the middle class child will discuss with his parents and never bring to his counselor, the child from the underclass may well bring to his counselor if he learns to trust him.

These are some of the crucial factors which we need to take into consideration when we talk of teaching and counseling children of the underclass. The basic competencies and basic training are similar for any school, and the basic preparation is the same. Sensitivity, however, is a very special factor; we know very little about how to train for it.

There has been much discussion about training teachers and counselors of the disadvantaged by exposing them to the children and the conditions under which these children live and go to school. Exposure is necessary, but exposure must be accompanied by identification. It does not help very much to expose a person to conditions and situations with which he cannot identify.

Another recommendation that has been made is the establishment of laboratory schools and demonstration centers specifically geared to teaching and training disadvantaged youth. If such schools and centers are established, I hope that their program contains some of the features that I recommended earlier in this paper.

SUMMARY

I would like to conclude now by addressing myself briefly to each of the items on the outline of the proposal pertaining to the understanding of the guidance role of the teacher of young people with special needs due to their social, economic, and cultural isolation from our culture.

Guidance is a point of view which fosters creative self-discovery and the personal artistry of coping with life's responsibilities and developmental tasks. It is a point of view which pervades the entire learning atmosphere of an institution.

The traditional concepts of intelligence, aptitude, and achievement need to be thought through again. The currently used techniques of assessing these three basic aspects of behavior are not applicable to children of the underclass.

Motivation is as much a problem to the institution as it is to the persons with whom we are concerned. Much institutional behavior and many institutional demands are irrelevant to the needs of youth from the underclass.

Effective techniques of dealing with these youths are predicated on the capacity of the worker, be it teacher or counselor, to identify with such youths and for such youths to be able to identify with the worker and to see him as a model.

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SPECIAL EDUCATION AND ITS IMPLICATIONS FOR THE TRAINING OF TEACHERS TO WORK WITH DISADVANTAGED YOUTH

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If someone were to ask me when the fuse was set in relation to the awakening of the public apathy towards the philosophy and absolute need for an appropriate education for deprived youth, I would list Dr. Conant's Social Dynamite as being that stimulus (National Committee for Children and Youth, 1961). The problems of exceptional children and disadvantaged youth are somewhat parallel as they relate to the definition of equal educational opportunities. Both groups have suffered as the result of apathy or a lack of understanding.

WIDE INDIVIDUAL DIFFERENCES EXIST AMONG CHILDREN IN EACH AREA OF EXCEPTIONAL CHILDREN

Beginning with this statement, most of my remarks will refer to special programs designed for the mentally retarded or special programs designed for the emotionally disturbed. Although separate classes for the retarded have been established on a national basis, they are not alike. Each class of students of educable mentally retarded children exhibit wide differences within the classroom. They are alike in one way, i.e., on the basis of the criteria used, they are unable to succeed within a regular classroom situation. From that point on they vary from one another as much as a so called normal child varies in his characteristics from another so called normal child in a regular classroom. We must also think very carefully about the individual differences which exist among disadvantaged individuals. They are alike only in that they suffer from deprivation.

The basic needs of the disadvantaged youth in the slums of New York City are certainly the same as are the basic needs of the disadvantaged youth out of the small run-down coal mining community in the back hills of West Virginia. The basic difference between these two, however, are how these needs are to be met, and to assume that both are to be met in the same way is a false assumption.

EARLY SCREENING, IDENTIFICATION, AND PLACEMENT IN A SPECIAL EDUCATION PROGRAM ARE GENERALLY NECESSARY IF EXCEPTIONAL CHILDREN ARE TO MAKE OPTIMAL PROGRESS IN SCHOOL

Probably no phase of curriculum planning should receive as much attention as in the first year of school. The results of overlooking problems at this level are very costly not only emotionally, but economically as well. Ideally, children who are likely to have school problems should be identified before the problems obtain.

For example, too many educable retarded children are never placed in a classroom until they have learned how to be failures. We also ought to recognize, too, as it relates to emotionally disturbed children, that if we can provide a preventative program for them rather than to have to provide a therapeutic and corrective program for them, the chances for success in relation to the welfare of the child will be much greater.

This particular need, I feel, is as true for disadvantaged youth as for these other youngsters. Due to the fact that we can recognize they are coming from problem areas, then certainly we ought to be trying to do something about it. Obviously, this is one of the major purposes of "Project Headstart." Even with all of its problems and certain questions which have been raised, this program offers real potential.

THE TEAM APPROACH TO COMPREHENSIVE CASE STUDY INVOLVES MEDICAL, SOCIAL, AND PSYCHOLOGICAL, AS WELL AS EDUCATIONAL SPECIALISTS, BUT EDUCATIONAL DIAGNOSIS AND PLACEMENT ARE CENTRAL RESPONSIBILITIES OF THE EDUCATION AUTHORITY IN CHARGE

This particular position is one, which, in essence, states that we cannot as educators stand alone in relation to the total welfare of an exceptional child. In an effort to meet the needs of an exceptional child the various disciplines must be involved and their positions stated, their findings reported, and integrated into a total educational program designed to meet the needs of the individual child. The educational program becomes the responsibility of the education authority in charge. In no way am I inferring that other disciplines do not play an important role in the molding of the educational program; however, the discipline of education must take the responsibility for the program and its implementation.

It appears to me that we have an analogy here between the program planning for special education and for an educational program planned for disadvantaged youth. Namely, that we must rely upon the sociologists, the psychologists, the anthropologists, the political scientists, and the economists as it relates to an effective educational curriculum for disadvantaged youth. However, the responsibility for coordinating and implementing this educational program rests finally upon the shoulders of the educators.

THE SUCCESS OF A PARTICULAR TYPE OF SPECIAL EDUCATION SERVICE WILL DEPEND ON WELL DEVELOPED CRITERIA FOR PLACEMENT SO THAT PUPILS WITH OTHER TYPES OF PROBLEMS AND NEEDS ARE NOT INAPPROPRIATELY ENROLLED IN IT

I would hope that as we discuss possible teacher training programs for disadvantaged youth that we will not place ourselves in a position in which the discipline of special education has found itself, namely, compartmentalization and possibly inappropriate classification of children. The recent past president of the Council for Exceptional Children, Harry M. Selznick, suggested that the discipline of special education reconsider the classification and grouping of pupils which has been found in special education programs over the past years. He states (1965, 357):

> Although good programs of training provide the special educator with broad aspects of understanding, he is essentially an educator. The techniques and skills which he brings to the school situation are intended to enhance the learning opportunities for the children with whom he works. Too often the children are placed in a given class because of a similarity in a medical diagnostic label rather than because of a similarity in learning needs. We, in special education, must recognize our areas of competence and direct our energies and attention to the types of groupings which will best contribute to the accomplishment of our responsibilities. Although we are educators, we have permitted medical diagnostic labels to bring about type compartmentations which frequently bear little relation to learning needs and abilities.

SPECIALIZED CURRICULUM, MATERIALS, AND EQUIPMENT ARE NEEDED

This position has been held by the discipline of special education over the many years. Obviously the quantity and type will vary from area to area. For example, the specialized needs in the area of the mentally retarded certainly differ as compared with the area of the physically handicapped or with the area of the visually handicapped. The variances in ways of meeting the needs within a special area are not nearly as obvious as the variances between areas and the tangible changes in the improvement of school facilities, special equipment, etc. For example, if one were to look at the changes in classroom methods that have taken place in the teaching of retarded children over the past few years, one might have some difficulty in seeing any basic differences. This seems to be so, even though we have some factual evidence which is based on research and which ought to result in some changes. Of course what I am suggesting is a built-in evaluation of a program so that we can evaluate the direction and effectiveness of a program which is in operation. We have a fine opportunity to build-in an evaluation of the program we are concerned with as it is being developed and initiated.

CLINICAL EDUCATION INSTRUCTION IS NEEDED FOR EXCEPTIONAL CHILDREN WHICH INVOLVES INDIVIDUALIZED TEACHING PROCEDURES BASED UPON CAREFUL APPRAISAL OF EACH PUPIL'S ABILITIES AND DISABILITIES

This position as it relates to individualized teaching procedures is not new. Kirk (1953) stated emphatically that special education should be based on clinical procedures. This type of teaching, that is clinical teaching, must involve the identification of the specific learning problems manifested by the child and then apply remediation according to effective principles of learning. I am afraid, however, that too many special education teachers have not been trained in clinical teaching procedures. I suspect all too many who have had an opportunity to involve themselves with clinical teaching procedures based on differential diagnosis have dropped the procedures by the wayside, not because they do not wish to use this approach, but because it is almost impossible as it relates to the type of grouping which has taken place.

As the teacher training program for disadvantaged youth is developed, we might wish to think of the following direction for grouping which was suggested by Selznick (1965). He recommended that grouping ought to be on the basis of communication disorders, behavioral disorders, or special learning disorders. He felt that various programs and services could be developed for children who possessed one or a combination of the above disorders. Each child could receive a special service or a combination of special services and, in turn, clinical teaching could be provided in each of the classrooms so that a variety of approaches might be tried with the individual child. We may wish to consider the possibility of grouping based on certain disorders which are commonly found within the disadvantaged group, namely, communication, behavioral, and special learning disorders.

CONTINUOUS REASSESSMENT OF CHILDREN AND REEVALUATION OF SCHOOL PROGRAMS ARE ESSENTIAL TO PROGRESS

I would like to add one more facet to this axiom, i.e., a reassessment and reevaluation of special education classes and teacher training programs. In reference to evaluation of the effectiveness of special class placement versus regular class placement of retarded individuals, one would have to say the whole field of special education is still in a turmoil about this. Present research seems to indicate that there are no basic differences between the two in relation to the achievement and social competencies of the retarded child. There have been some basic methodological flaws in research design pertaining to these kinds of research projects; however, Sparks and Blackman (1965, 245-246) indicate that:

> . . . . proof must be forthcoming

> that there is more special about special education than the children assigned to these classes. If the null hypothesis relating to the differences between regular and special classes cannot be rejected, then the field of special education represented primarily by teacher trainers and administrators, will be required to do some soul searching.

Of course now they are talking about the special classes for the retarded. They go on to discuss the problem as it relates to the special teacher's training, that is:

> A survey of the literature to determine whether the special teacher's approach to the special child actually differs from the regular teacher's approach to the normal child did not unearth a single study comparing the two teaching procedures on any dimension. A review of the literature to determine the basis of sequences of courses leading to certification of a teacher of educable mentally retarded children reveals no validation study nor any claims for teaching the mentally retarded. On the basis of existing evidence, it is only possible to conclude that the special education teacher has superior qualifications to teach exceptional children to the degree that the consensus of intelligence and experience of special educators is accepted. Empirical proof of the validity of special preparation does not exist.

This sounds awful and rather damming. However, the area of special education does not seem to stand alone in relation to this criticism. Cyphert (1964, 1) stated in his summary report of a conference on research in teacher education:

> Preeminent among the problems which teacher education today is fraught is its apparent inability to provide for its own systematic improvement. Concomitantly the extant research in teacher education is neither extensive nor profound. Existing teacher education research has had only a minimal impact upon teacher preparation and curriculum. Teacher education content and method have been generated almost exclusively on logical ground without explicit empirical reference to a clear definition of criterion behavior and has been neither empirically validated nor refuted.
>
> An additional contention is that research in teacher education has been poorly conceived and defined so as to exclude from study perhaps the most important elements of the education of teachers. Much of the educational research which might have implications for restructuring teacher education is not integrated with the literature of teacher education. Many would contend that teacher education research has been approached in the main in an unimaginative fashion and with no communicable conceptual frame of reference.

Again it seems to me that we have an opportunity, as we develop a curriculum to train teachers for disadvantaged youth, to integrate with this program an evaluation technique so that we can check where we are going and how effective we are in reaching our goals.

FOLLOW-UP OF EACH STUDENT AFTER HE LEAVES SCHOOL AND PLACEMENT ASSISTANCE WHERE NEEDED ARE RESPONSIBILITIES OF THE SCHOOL

This particular axiom has come into its own, especially within the past decade. The work study program for educable mentally retarded, secondary age youngsters is now a blooming and successful program. It has been known for a number of years that retarded individuals could hold various types of jobs; however, no concerted and systematic effort was made to bring the mentally retarded to the job nor to introduce the employer to the capabilities manifested by the educable mentally retarded. I suspect that I would disagree with this axiom at its face value in that placement, assistance, and follow-up is not the sole responsibility of the school. Effective follow-up and placement of individuals should be an integral part of the total inter-disciplinary program planning for educable retarded individuals and probably can be one of the most important facets of program planning for disadvantaged youth.

They need to have a point whereby they can touch base; where, if problems develop with the employer, they can come back to an individual within the school for counsel and assistance guidance. Syden (1962, 331) summarizes by saying:

> During the past decade many school systems have inaugurated programs for the educable mentally retarded of secondary school age.... Curriculum content, whether organized under traditional titles or under core units of study, is socio-occupationally oriented. The goals of the program are to develop the individual's capabilities and assist him in discovering his place in the economic society upon completion of his formal schooling. In addition to academics taught by special education teachers and electives in classes for normal students, the special education curriculum (for the educable mentally retarded) provides for work experience as a bridge between school and the world of work coordinated and correlated by special education personnel.

The following axioms formulated by Dunn (1963, 38-39) are as equally self-evident as we consider various ways and means of developing a teacher-training program designed to train teachers of disadvantaged youth. They are as follows:

1) Community-wide cooperation among educational and non-educational services for exceptional children will broaden the comprehensiveness and avoid gaps and duplications.

2) Special education programs are (can be) strengthened by frequent interpretation of them to educators, parents, legislators, and the public.

3) The promotion of educational research, teacher preparation, and instructional services in education for exceptional children are the joint responsibilities of national, state, and local agencies.

In conclusion, as we begin to delve into a special program for teacher training, and as to what methods and competencies are important, we might do well to reconsider what Dewey (1913, 202) had to say about methods:

> Strictly speaking, method is thoroughly individual. Each has his own instinctive way of going at a thing; the attitude and the mode of the approach and attack are individual. To ignore this individuality of approach, to try to substitute for it under the name of "general method," a uniform scheme of procedure, is simply to cripple the only effective agencies of operation and to overlay them with the mechanical formalism that produces only a routine conventionality of mental quality.

And finally, I would like to recommend that we consider the possibility of taking a leaf from the experiences gained by the group at the Norfolk Division of Virginia State College. Their research demonstration project concerned with training the hard core unemployed has provided some insights which we could well profit from as we move into a proposed specialized teacher education program. The bulletin is entitled *Training the Hard Core Unemployed; A Demonstration and Research Project at Virginia State College, Norfolk Division*. In a brief statement (1964, 116), Brooks dealt upon the worthwhileness of the individual, of the dignity of man. In his closing statements he indicated that:

> Before the project could be considered a success, the ninety men who had been recruited and trained had to be employed on jobs which would allow

them and their families to live at a decent standard. To many, this was the proof of the project (the pre-training workshop with industrial and business men was helpful at the time of employment) yet the project team had to overcome patterns of discrimination in some areas, skeptism....

The crowning point....was the rising sense of dignity and worth in the men....it was a thing that gradually caused hitherto shy and deprived men to talk with pride and confidence when people in high positions from all parts of the Nation came and sat in their classrooms....it is the story of a working commitment to the dignity of man, it is the story of the kind of deep experiences that may become the heart of manpower, poverty and other programs that will help the disadvantaged and defeated climb up on the main road of human dignity.

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AN AREA OF CONSIDERATION FOR A TEACHER EDUCATION CURRICULUM IN THE VOCATIONAL AND OCCUPATIONAL FIELDS

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This paper starts with the somewhat lengthy assumption that vocational and occupational teacher education programs will be successful to the extent that they can produce the quantity and quality of teachers who have the interest and desire to teach boys and girls, as well as men and women, ranging through the continuum of social and economic differences; through the continuum of ability ranges; and through the continuum of student background in the technological progress and advancements of society.

This does not mean that any one or several teachers would be capable of such versatility. The essence of the requirement is that there be a sufficient quantity of quality teachers at each level of need in order to accomplish the ends of education in a society where the dignity of man, his maximum development, and his maximum contribution are of primary concern.

It appeared to be the better part of wisdom to devote this particular presentation to a projection of the kind of a person the curriculum would hope to produce. In other words, this paper is a discussion of the quality goal for the proposed curriculum.

The early establishment of statements describing the product of a curriculum would provide the goals or objectives towards which the curriculum could be designed. The statements contained herein have been developed as a result of a broad study of the vocational and occupational fields and a number of years of dedicated observation to the trends in occupations and vocations. The following ten points also are a result of prolonged analyses of the requirements of those who teach in these fields.

Each of the ten points is followed by a statement or rationale that supports the teacher quality under discussion. It is also important to mention at this time that the writer has no delusions about the absolute inclusiveness of the qualities.

The following ten points are presented as teacher quality goals or objectives towards which the ultimate curriculum growing out of this study may be directed:

1. The vocational teacher of the future must acquire a sensitivity to the changing role of man in relation to work.

This sensitivity must be developed to a depth that will permit the teacher not only to generalize on its consequences, but also to design learning experiences which will enable the student to assimilate the concept into his attitudes and behavior.

Venn, in his book Man, Education, and Work, wrote about ". . . a new relationship between man, his education, and his work, in which education is placed squarely between man and his work." (4, p. 1)

Essentially, this is an emphasis on the role of education in the affairs of man. It not only presents education as the key to the door that opens into the world of work, but it also implies that education will be imperative to continue to work.

It is needless to pursue this point about the importance of education and the pressing need for increased education in the future.

It is important, however, to have teachers who are capable of such attitudinal stimulation on the part of the student. Likewise, it is important that the teacher recognize this same fact in his own development.

2. The teacher of the future will be required to interpret and make use of research findings and community analyses far beyond the activities of his predecessor in these areas.

The current multidisciplinary emphasis in vocational education is clear evidence of the trend of thought in this area. It is an obvious outgrowth of inadequacies found in the past education of vocational teachers and administrators.

Vocational education can no longer afford the easy route of selected students, or compilations of skills to be taught based upon a narrow interpretation of the trade. Nor can it base the program of studies on a limited local industries' pressure or survey for specific skills.

Teachers, administrators, community representatives, and a host of consulting personnel will form the backbone of future curriculum development activities. This will require the preparation of teachers in this field to have a greater insight into the factors that affect vocational education in the contemporary age. It will require a working knowledge of the tools and findings of research and scholarship by which such insights are developed.

The narrowness of the traditional teacher preparation processes and requirements have definitely set the vocational teacher apart from the other professionals in education. This is especially obvious in the areas of research, scholarship, and cross-discipline utilization.

3. The vocational teacher of the future will place greater emphasis on people—the development of people rather than the making of things by his students.

The central issue here is one of putting first business first. The only defensible product of the American vocational school is people.

This concern for people is excellently portrayed in the publication Goals for Americans as follows: (1, p. 3)

> The status of the individual must remain our primary concern. All our institutions—political, social, and economic—must further enhance the dignity of the citizen, promote the maximum development of his capabilities, stimulate their responsible exercise, and widen the range and effectiveness of opportunities for individual choice.

There has been the prevailing attitude among too many vocational educators and administrators that display-case filling, project fairs, as well as state and national project contests are the primary goals of instruction. What I am saying is—the professional teacher must develop the thinking that all of the school's equipment, libraries, laboratories, and personnel have but one function—the maximizing of the performance of the individual. Essentially, what this means is that the teacher's attitude and his actions will cause him to diligently pursue the task of making Johnny or Mary the best persons they are capable of becoming. This notion of teaching would cause the vocational teacher to take greater interest in the psychology of human behavior, learning theory, human growth and development, and sociology. The tools of teaching are in essence the principles of psychology that aid the teacher in his efforts to affect a change in the student's behavior or intellectual equipment. The tools, machines, materials, and devices commonly found in the laboratory are merely the assisting implements through which these other behavioral changing tools work.

This effort in behalf of people cannot be accomplished in a splintered process with each teacher or segment of the school acting independently. The human grows as an organism and it is essential that the educational establishment direct its attention accordingly. This would call for a team concept with the total faculty being the team members. This idea alone is worthy of considerable emphasis in the teacher education curriculum.

4. The vocational teacher of the future will find himself a specialist among other specialists in the professional setting.

This is not to merely infer a specialization by such categories as agriculture, trade and industries, business, or home economics. Furthermore, the specialization will go beyond the specialties of clothing or foods for home economics; or the specialties of machining, plumbing, carpentry or electricity for the trades and industries person.

The specialty to which I refer is that of the specialist among people. Yes, the specialist to deal effectively with the disadvantaged, the specialist for working with the dropout, and the specialists for such other groups as the "slow," the accelerated, the highly skilled, or the man on the job who needs new skills because of displacement. It has been obviously clear that these specialties call for different people, and the records of teaching will amply attest to this point.

The teacher requirements are considerably different for those who teach the boy or girl from the disadvantaged socio-economic sectors of the society than they are for the teacher who deals with the highly skilled and advanced technical aspects of vocational education.

The implications for the teacher education curriculum would stress the need for more specialized courses in sociology, anthropology, communications, and special education for certain teachers.

Others may require concentrations of work in the sciences, adult education, economics, etc.

5. The teacher of the future will be much more skillful in the design of learning experiences.

The true artistry in teaching and ultimately the net result of education is dependent upon this very important facility on the part of the teacher.

Ralph Tyler, in his book Basic Principles of Curriculum and Instruction, emphasizes this point as follows: (3, p. 41)

> . . . . The term "learning experience" refers to the interaction between the learner and the external conditions in the environment to which he can react. Learning takes place through the active behavior of the student; it is what he does that he learns, not what the teacher does. It is possible for two students to be in the same class and for them to be having two different experiences.

The concept of environment is one of the problems of education in the traditional sense. The isolationism of the school from the great laboratory of life has indeed restricted the potential for learning as well as the teacher's design of learning experiences.

The vocational setting in the school with the usual laboratory facilities provides an opportunity for creative and ingenious "learning experience design" that many of the "academic" settings lack. The vocational setting in the school provides the opportunity for planning, constructing, experimenting, testing, evaluating, researching, demonstrating, lecturing, viewing and listening of all forms, as well as many other kinds of student experiences.

6. The vocational teacher of the future will be required to have an adequate and ever-increasing knowledge about, as well as an increasing facility with, the newer media of instruction.

The vocational teacher of the future will constantly find himself faced with a need for the tools of teaching. These will be vastly different from the tools of the vocational or occupational area he teaches. These tools with proper use are designed to affect the processes of communication, and in turn have an influence on the behavior of humans.

Such devices as television, radio, teaching machines, pupil-response mechanisms, projectors of all kinds, tape recorders, bulletin boards, chalk boards, models, mockups, collections, specimens, charts, graphs, maps, and many more (new and old) will constitute the tools of the professional teacher.

The effective use of these items is a must in a society experiencing an explosion of knowledge, a society dedicated to the education of all its people, and a society witnessing a population explosion. Furthermore, this need is emphasized by an increasing demand on the intellectual and performance requirements of the individual.

7. The future teacher of vocational education must be more articulate about his work and

his purposes than what has been the case with past teachers in this area.

One of the serious areas of deficiency among vocational and occupational teachers is that of not being capable and at times willing to discuss their work, their purposes, and the values of their work.

Yet, if these teachers are to be effective in the broad range of their responsibilities, and if the support and strengthening of vocational and occupational education is to come from the teaching staffs in these areas, it is apparent that verbal articulation is essential.

The decisions in faculty meetings, Parent-Teacher Association meetings, and board of education meetings are dependent upon such articulation in all areas, and vocational education needs strengthening at all levels in this respect.

8. The vocational and occupational teacher of the future will possess new and varied dimensions of skill and knowledge pertinent to his area of instruction.

The teacher will be required to be competent at the level of the occupational scale he teaches. This implies a core of teachers operating at different levels within a given area of study. It also implies a differentiation in the background and skill requirement for the teacher at the various levels.

This principle or idea grows out of a very obvious observation that all students in a vocational machine shop are not going to be master mechanics. There are students in the vocational programs that will stretch their ability to attain occupational competency at the lowest level and it is important that this group be given full concern and the fullest assistance in becoming what they can.

The range of skill concept as presented above has strong implications for maximum teaching manpower utilization in an age of great shortages.

This same concept may also produce a greater degree of compatibility between the teacher and the students at the several levels.

9. The vocational teacher of the future must assume a more positive attitude toward his opportunities and value in the total educational picture.

His "self concept" should be one of a significant contributor to society. His actions and his belief in his work should demonstrate to his colleagues, his community, and the nation the high purpose and value of his work.

This point is brought into focus in a statement made by Dr. Vernon Anderson, Dean of the College of Education at the University of Maryland:

> At times I hear a teacher of one of the specialized fields virtually apologize for the fact that his subject does not appeal to the intellect, in this day of stress on intellectual attainment. Scholarship does not reside in a subject. The study of a subject becomes alive, an adventure in research, and experience in discovery, a scholarly pursuit, if the teacher has the insight and understanding to make it so.

10. The vocational teacher of the future will be required to undergo a constant process of "self-renewal."

This process of self-renewal is not something that automatically happens. Furthermore, certification and recertification requirements are not the answer to this problem. Self-renewal, to be effective, must stem from an attitude that is within the individual. This attitude by which self-renewal is accomplished should be the concern of teacher education, and ultimately the total of society.

The need for self-renewal in the individual becomes apparent as a rapidly changing society forces changes in the curriculum. Thus, the teacher as well as the substance of his actions (the curriculum) must undergo this constant process of renewal.

The sensitivity to change in the curriculum is stressed by Smith, Stanley, and Shores as follows: (2, p. 12)

> Since the curriculum is interwoven with the whole cultural fabric, it follows that as the culture undergoes serious modifications the curriculum will become an object of concern, especially among the more sensitive members of the teaching profession and of the society at large. The

adequacy of the old curriculum for the new cultural circumstances will be searchingly questioned and changes in the curriculum proposed.

Perhaps one of the major questions that teacher educators might address themselves to is that of self-renewal. How can the teacher education process effectively deal with the behavior of the future teacher in the area of self-renewal?

The previous ten points describing the general requirements for occupational and vocational teachers were an attempt to establish quality goals for a teacher education curriculum. The recognition or acceptance of such goals have numerous implications for curriculum development:

1. Teacher education must establish within the future teacher a sensitivity to the world about him and the impact of the social, economic, and the technological forces upon his area of instruction.
2. Teacher education will need to devote appropriate time and effort into the processes and procedures for community analysis, including the occupational, social, economic, and educational elements. This will entail experience with a wide range of research procedures and knowledge about the interpretation of research findings.
3. The disciplines dealing with human growth and development, psychology, and learning theory will require appropriate attention and emphasis.
4. The vocational teacher will require specialized courses in the areas of special education, sociology, economics, and communications to prepare for teaching assignments in groups with special needs. This may involve one or more forms of community study or work experience.
5. Practice and extended study in the area of "learning experience design" will need to be included in the professional sequence of courses. This may involve various forms of laboratory and/or cadet teaching experiences with the age groups to be taught.
6. The teacher should receive continuous exposure to the excellent use of the newer educational media as well as one or more courses in this area.
7. A number of public speaking and professional seminar experiences (courses or informal) should be included to develop articulation in the area. This also could include courses in philosophy and foundations of education.
8. The problem of skill development and skill evaluation may be accomplished through a broad range of processes including: credit by examination, special courses, technical and engineering credit transfer, as well as apprenticeship and other industrial training programs.
9. Professional leadership and internship experiences appear as other requirements. This could include participation in various levels of professional associations both in and out of vocational education, as well as internship in vocational administration.
10. Emphasis throughout the course work as well as in all assignments should be directed toward the self-sufficiency of the teacher in his ability to seek out answers, make use of resources, and develop satisfaction in the pursuit of knowledge.

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INVENTING AN EDUCATION FOR TEACHERS

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My assignment is to describe the contributions the discipline of sociology may make to a program for the training of teachers of stigmatized youth. I shall try, first, to say something about my conception of education today. This will include both what is vulgarly called "higher" and "lower" education. I shall try, second, to say something about the general educational problem of teaching. Third, I shall attempt to connect education, teaching, sociology, and stigmatized youth into some coherent context. Finally, I shall submit for your consideration a suggestive sub-curriculum program of sociology designed for possible inclusion in a Masters level, teacher preparatory curriculum directed toward the goal of preparing teachers for educating youth—stigmatized or otherwise.

I take as a self-evident fact that all education today in America must be concerned with the constant ferment of every facet of our society. This concern, bluntly and pointedly, must center on problem-solving. These problems, moreover, cannot be compartmentalized away from the dominant humanistic, intellectual, and social forces of our contemporary existence. I am saying that we cannot afford to allow any of the future generations to escape their sense of obligation and responsibility for involvement in the heart of our entire intellectual and social life.

I cannot accept the paternalistic ideology and approach that we as educators can indulge in the immorality of devising pseudo-educational or training programs aimed at the preparing of teachers to train any youth for "low-level, marketable, semiskilled jobs requiring minimal mechanical aptitudes." The plain fact is that our world now, and as far as we can imagine the shape of things to be in the future, is not receptive to youth who have prepared robot-life for "low" or "high" level work activity. This fact is accompanied by the companion fact of the miseducation of practically all of our youth for life in an urban, industrial, "over-developed" society. The ultimate test of the validity of these facts may include the clear symptoms of revolt against much of the conventional educational system by large segments of our youth.

This is why I use the concept of problem-solving as the basic theme of any educational scheme designed to be applied to our youth. Useful problem-solving in the larger sense; i.e., the freeing of the capacities of each individual—teacher and/or student—for the attainment of new levels of awareness, intellect, emotion, and involvement. I have in mind here the idea of education as an instrument of allowing each youth to fully "become" so as to permit each to be a positive part of the mainstream of contributors to the continued existence and development of human society. Social as well as "hardware" problems do exist in our world; and the educational process must involve teachers and students in confronting social issues, understanding them, and developing whatever it takes to confidently see, define, and work reasonably toward their solution or management.

My concept of the educational process, then, is based upon an estimation of the needs of youth in the world of human relations today and in the future. All youth need to master the formal discipline of logic and mathematics, and the disciplines of experimentation, natural history, and of esthetic form. If these are mastered, one has learned to learn; and commitment to human society is possible.

I am proposing a tough-minded analysis of American society as the core of a teacher-training program directed toward youth. In addition, I propose that this problem-solving educational approach be messianic and idealistic. It deliberately must focus on utilizing the entire educational system to counteract those influences considered adverse that are exerted by peers, parents, neighborhoods, and communities on youth. Moral, or if you prefer another word, character training has to be included too; teachers ought to be encouraged and induced to stress vigorous intellectual as well as physical/athletic activity. Such a program should include also a preoccupation by those who are taught with major societal and humanistic ideals, values, and goals.

This leads me to the problem of teaching. The sad truth of the matter, it seems to me, is that teachers have lost their revolutionary zeal. In dealing professionally with students, teachers tend not to think so much in terms of change and revolution as of adjustment and accommodation. Teachers have developed a massive array of coping devices to prevent confronting youth with the facts of social life. A predictable response from youth is their loss of confidence in us. Sometimes I believe that most youth intensely dislike teachers and educators. They recognize, painfully, that teachers are mere servants without deep roots of integrity and commitment, and that we are not intellectual and cultural leaders and involved citizens. I say that teachers could develop coping devices to make youth learn.

I have no pat proposal to offer for the radical reform of teacher training. However, I fail to see how youth can be taught how to learn and "to be" by their adult models unless they know that such models have integrity and a deep sense of meaningful attachment to the real world, and possess as well the art, craft, and science of their profession. The clearest concrete example of the teacher role being performed as I have it in mind is delightfully described by Sylvia Ashley-Warner in her book entitled Teacher. I am saying to you that I want to see this proposed teacher training program defined as a part of a total revitalization movement. These trainee teachers should be involved in a complete personal and professional transformation. The crux of this conversion process should be the shaking and repudiation of the old way, and a thrust made toward shifting them to the acceptance of a new commitment and purpose to teaching and learning.

A word about the concept "disadvantaged youth." Somehow, I always read this as "Negro Youth"; merely a bit of myopia I assure you. I want to make two observations. I suspect that Negro youth intensely dislike the way they have been traditionally handled by teachers and the school systems. They don't fall for the old line about "we are color-blind." They know only too well that teachers and the schools have never been color-blind, and they see little evidence of their becoming color-blind now. They know the old ploy, too, about their families and homes being responsible for their not learning; these kinds of youth have been "playing the dozens" long before they were exposed to insult and injury by teachers and schools. Teachers of such youth, then, must be aware of the sharpness and accuracy of their students' perception of the educational system, and their feelings about it. Also, teachers of such youth must know and appreciate that in all truth Negroes are infamously stigmatized by the American social system. Most Negro youth have grown up in a predominately lower class, poverty-stricken, social world that often has a distinctive socio-cultural organization. Social goals and the means for their attainment may be uniquely defined, established, and accepted in such a social world. And, above all else, they have met always from the white members of American society—as far as isolation and segregation permitted—an immutable denigration of their worth, dignity, and being. The results are easily evident to their teachers; and if such youth are to learn how to learn, these problems and their consequences must be coped with intelligently by their teachers.

Negro youth do not exhaust the membership category included within the "disadvantaged" label. There are collectivities of other so-called racial, color, and ethnic groups to be included: such as Mexican-Americans, Puerto Rican-Americans, Oriental-Americans, and "other"-Americans! In addition, we have youth who are treated as outsiders or disadvantaged because of such factors as their rural, Appalachian, or share-cropping background; their migratory way of life; the poverty or "low-class" community positions of their families; and even those who displease aesthetically by being obese, too tall, too short, too thin, and even too ugly! All such categories may be euphemistically thought of as left-outs, potential drop-outs, socially deprived, culturally deprived, disinterested, handicapped, reluctant and/or alienated.

Regardless of how we label, identify, or stigmatize these youth, teachers and school systems operating within democratic traditions, and especially as prescribed by our imperative of equality of opportunity, must deliberately prepare them by developing their critical facilities, improving their creative and judgmental skills, and building up their capacity to learn. These youth must be prepared, not for satisfactory adjustment to the status quo or for the occupancy of some insignificant societal niche, but for awareness of what the status quo is and how by learning they can be a part of changing the status quo.

I cannot stress too much my opinion that American society and the present institution of education can no longer avoid confronting the problem of the existence of an inferior and an unequal system of education afforded such disadvantaged youth. The situation must be made plain, and even painfully so, to those electing to pursue a career of teaching as a first step; only then can problem-solving in terms of its ruthless destruction and the urgent re-creation of an adequate teaching and learning system be devised and put into effective operation.

I have two last observations to make about the roles of teachers and educators with those called "disadvantaged youth." I suggest that you think for a moment of stigmatized youth as a type of dissenter. Now I think that not only must we in a democracy tolerate dissent, but we may be able to learn from it. These dissenting youth could possibly teach us something; and we cannot risk the loss of whatever it might be they are trying to communicate. It just could be important.

The last observation is about my fear. It is a fear of our unintentionally further stigmatizing disadvantaged youth by providing them with special teachers and special educational programs. Look at it practically. At the 10th grade, for instance, certain youth are recruited for a special vocational/technical educational program, with special teachers. It has to be a special track because I understand that regular vocational/technical schools reject "disadvantaged" youth, as do the regular general high schools. What do you think such youth will think and feel? What do you imagine they will do? This is a serious matter. Do we really want more isolation and segregation? My fear, then, is clear and it predisposes me to concentrate on the educational process as it involves all youth.

Sociology, as an academic discipline, has several functions directly relevant to teacher training. It is, above all else, dedicated to the deliberate search for truth about or an attempt to understand the world of human relations. It has the equally important mission, in my opinion, to provide clarification of and corrective solutions for the great problems and issues of societal life. These functions can be translated concretely to the topic before us today.

I submit the following six (6) questions that are inherently sociological. Then I shall explore their relevance to a teacher training program designed for those who will teach stigmatized or nonstigmatized youth.

1. What are the ways that the members of American society really behave?

2. What are the ideologies, goals, and values (actual and professed) which members of American society hold?

3. What are the main social structures or entities into which members of American society organize themselves, and what are the natures of the connections between such entities and their consequences?

4. What are the principal agents, agencies, and channels of change among members of American society?

5. What are the unsolved, unresolved, persistent, and recurrent problems or failures of the members of American society?

6. What behavior models of deviance and conformity do we observe among the members of American society?

For each of these general sociological inquiries, subsidiary questions naturally follow: e.g., what is the actual fact or situation; who is involved; why are they so involved, i.e., who gets and who gives; in what ways are these parties involved; and, finally, what are the rational and irrational results of the situation— the ramifications of such actions and interactions?

Teachers of any youth can be corrupted by sociology by following this approach to the world of man. For one thing teachers will gain disillusioning insight into the rational and irrational sources of social life. They must have this objective and disenchanting knowledge before they can successfully engage youth in the transforming aspects of the learning processes. Moreover, teachers can be brought to understand and accept the educational utility of divergent thinking. This condition functions so efficiently in permitting the identification and avoidance of cant, dogma, and indoctrination. The old aphorism of "what is, is right" may be tested and rejected; and the lesson then transferred to the youth who are attempting to learn how to learn. Pursuing the above questions nullifies the tendency toward phoniness and make-believe explanations or justifications of the social world, which are so quickly recognized by our astute youth of today. Finally, conning teachers into dealing with such questions leads them irreverently and inevitably to problem-solving. I submit that the discipline of sociology has a mission to help clarify and to point out alternative resolutions to the problems emerging out of an analysis of society in this way. By confronting prospective teachers with the complexities of human life, sociology can contribute to the attainment not only of truth but of integrity, significant attachment to the real world, and commitment to the career of teaching youth about the joy and the agonies of societal life.

Let us look at sociology and teacher training from a more concrete perspective. The major problems of American society today center around the following issues: urban-industrial life; race and racism; complex organizational structures or systems; the world of youth; work and leisure; the educational institution; international relations; and, the nature of social change. No teacher worth his salt can induce and control the learning process without a competent and confident acquaintance with the character of such basic American problems and processes. Any treatment of the major sociological inquiries previously listed must confront directly these focal issues of our times. Sociology, then, has an indispensable role in training prospective teachers to cope with youth as they learn and acquire the courage to live and face the future.

I conclude with two observations. While all youth should be trained by their adult models in the perplexities and utilizations of problem-solving, those youth identified as stigmatized or disadvantaged especially and urgently need this knowledge. This is a fact because these youth have qualitatively and quantitatively more problems than other youth. Finally, I seem to perceive a common approach by agents of American society, including teachers, toward stigmatized youth. This approach amounts to locating the onus of their problems in the youth themselves. Thus, the strategies used tend to come under what is termed discipline, regimentation, group and individual therapy often of a psychoanalytic nature, physical and social isolation or segregation, and often threats, coercion, force, and violence. This approach disturbs me greatly. It assumes implicitly, at least, that those who have a problem condition caused it, and thereby, must be exorcised; and that such a unidimensional strategy alone is the answer to the resolution of their problems. The approach most commonly boils down into more of man's inhumanity to man.

Youth has to be led into an objective perception of the real world, and how it works. Their difficulties must be understood as they are within the world as it is. Teachers and youth must deal with the strategies and tactics of mobilization and involvement in changing how the world is; and youth must be led to know the results to them and all of society if they do or if they do not become alive to the reality of the world of man. Sociology is a powerful instrument for preparing teachers to engage in this way with all youth for the purpose of genuine education.

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THE ROLE OF SOCIAL PSYCHOLOGY IN THE DEVELOPMENT OF A MASTER TEACHER TRAINING CURRICULUM FOR TEACHERS OF OCCUPATIONAL LEVEL TRAINING PROGRAMS

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It is not easy to answer the question of how social psychology can contribute to the development of a training curriculum for vocational teachers of disadvantaged youth. Except for the problem of prejudice and ethnic relationships, academic social psychology tends to be far removed from the problems of the classroom in depressed urban and rural centers. Applied social psychology has concerned itself much more with survey research than with education. Where institutions have been studied, they tend to be industrial or governmental. Experimental social psychology, involving small groups, hardly ever deals with the three elements of the educational process: the student, the teacher, and the materials.

This does not mean that social psychologists have not contributed to an understanding of socially and economically deprived people. What it does suggest, however, is that social psychologists in this field start from society's problems rather than the formal structure of their discipline. While such psychologists bring to these problems their particular training in content and methodology, they interact much more with sociologists, educators, economists, and specialists in childhood and adolescence than with their professional colleagues.

Poverty compels an interdisciplinary approach. The socio-pathological symptoms of educational deficit, unemployment, low-level occupational skills, family disruption, personal disorganization, and high indices of asocial behavior cannot be studied in isolation. Social psychology, like every other discipline, has its own distinctive approach; nevertheless, when applied to the curricular issue before us, it must necessarily overlap with the content of other fields. A very thin wedge separates the sociologist, educator, and psychologist as they come to grips with the children and adolescents of the very poor.

In the following outline, although the emphasis will be on the content of social psychology deemed relevant and essential for vocational teachers in a fifth year program, where necessary, items from other fields and subspecialties have been included. The purpose here is to welcome overlap, in order to build a framework for the proposed curriculum from the point of view of a psychologist.

A. PREJUDICE AND ETHNIC RELATIONSHIPS

The analysis of prejudice is a content area with which social psychology has been concerned for decades.

1. A by-product of this concern with prejudice has been the development of attitudinal measuring techniques. It is probably necessary to review or state these briefly but not to devote too much time or energy to this aspect.

2. That prejudice is part of a pattern of opinion

is well known. Since "disadvantaged" means Negro in many contexts, it would be well to trace the interrelationships between racial attitudes and other attitudes to demonstrate ethnocentricity.

3. Particular attention should be paid to the studies of attitude change as a result of changed social circumstances (housing, military, etc.). (Laboratory studies should also be included here, but not stressed.)

4. Longitudinal evidence of attitude change toward the Negro should be presented. The so-called Negro Revolution has taken place in a United States which has undergone marked changes since 1939. In part, the civil rights movement has benefited from these changes and, in part, has contributed to them.

5. No discussion of prejudice can be held without an analysis of stereotypes. Theory and evidence on this subject can be fruitfully included. Selective perception and learning which reinforce stereotypes can be analyzed.

6. The Negro reaction to prejudice by extreme nationalism (the Black Muslims) and exaggerated devotion to negritude (Le Roi Jones) should also be included.

B. THE CONCEPT OF THE DISADVANTAGED PERSON

Although there is general agreement in the definition of the disadvantaged, care must be taken in any training program to guard against oversimplified generalizations.

Examination of the literature yields three foci of definition: 1) a general inability to adjust to society; 2) low socio-economic status; 3) a distinct pattern of psychological characteristics.

The uncritical use of the term "disadvantaged" lumps together under one umbrella many distinct groups. The problem of educating Negro migrants from the South differs from that of migrants from the West Indies. Both differ from the Puerto Rican. In California and Texas, Mexicans pose a different problem from any of the above. The foreign-born white or poor white farmer does not suffer the same "disadvantage" of his colored counterpart.

Enough critics of the concept of cultural deprivation have published (K. B. Clark, Mackler and Gidding, Landers, etc.) to warrant inclusion of safeguards against stereotyping. This is particularly important for teachers of disadvantaged youth, who should not be offered a built-in rationalization for failure to teach.

Thus, while the literature defining and identifying disadvantaged youths should be part of the curriculum in order to delineate the problem, simultaneously, the shortcomings of the definitions should be pointed out.

C. INDIVIDUAL AND GROUP DIFFERENCES

The foregoing, prejudice and the definition of the disadvantaged, lead directly to the ways in which people differ. Perhaps the best way to treat this central problem of psychology is to examine the attribute of intelligence, which is the most widely investigated of all the behavioral dimensions.

1. Racial Differences — One of the greatest contributions of social psychology has been the work of Otto Klineberg in his investigations of racial differences. In general, he demonstrated the operation of cultural factors in intelligence so clearly that the notion of an immutable, biological intelligence never recovered. The role of education, language, speed of work, and other environmental determinants of intelligence provided a plausible explanation of measured racial differences. The classic study of selective migration and Negro intelligence demonstrated that Negroes who moved from the South increased in IQ as a function of the number of years in Northern schools. Similarly, Klineberg demonstrated the superiority of acculturated Indians over reservation Indians in intelligence.

The work of Sherman and others also in the 1930's on the "contemporary Elizabethans" in the mountain hollows of Appalachia not only demonstrated that intellectual stultification was environmental in nature, but also removed the inflammatory issue of race.

The current literature confirms and enhances this point of view.

2. Psychometrics — The interpretation of the meaning of psychological test scores should be

briefly reviewed in the curriculum. The concepts of variability, test reliability, and validity, overlap between populations in test distribution, and differences in test-wiseness and experience must be stressed. Such an analysis will make clear to the teacher both the strengths and weaknesses of measurement.

3. Individual Differences— Treatment of racial differences and psychometrics leads the psychologist to the analysis of differences between individuals. Although we know that each human being is unique, that even people who come from the same social milieu differ in abilities as well as in personal characteristics, to demonstrate this psychologically is difficult. The interaction betweengenetic inheritance and life experiences is so complex as to defy either experimental or clinical analysis.

To accomplish the aim of describing the wide variations between people, perhaps the assignment of works of literature is preferable to a brief review of personality theory. Thus novels and plays which illustrate the artist's perception of unique people interacting with each other could be used. Negro authors (Ellison, Baldwin, Hughes, etc.) depict from life flesh and blood characters hardly ever seen in case reports.

The use of novels and plays about the Negro would have the ancillary effect of providing the teachers in training with a concrete knowledge of the background of some of their future students.

D. CULTURAL ENRICHMENT

This phrase covers all the compensatory programs designed to offset poverty. Of these, educational programs are most relevant.

1. Human Studies—The change in behavior as a result of changed circumstances has been noted earlier. A brief summary of successful programs in training the disadvantaged could be useful.

2. Animal Studies— The work of Hebb and his students on the effect of enriched environments on the learning of rats is also relevant.

3. The Limits of Change— The summary by Benjamin Bloom of stability and change in behavior might provide a theoretical base for the amount of change possible.

E. THE ROLE OF HISTORY

None of the foregoing makes sense unless a knowledge of American history is part of the curriculum. The history of the American Negro, for example, is a record of two hundred years of slavery and one hundred years of second-class citizenship. A concrete depiction of slavery as an institution, the horror of the slave trade, the laws against educating the slave helps in making the present comprehensible. The failure of reconstruction and the development of patterns of segregation in housing, schools, and employment explain the massive educational deficit of the disadvantaged Negro far better than recourse to a notion of "cultural deprivation."

Thus, although history is not the province of social psychology, an ahistorical approach by social scientists leads to errors of interpretation.

THE TEACHER AND THE PSYCHOLOGY OF THE CULTURALLY DEPRIVED

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In order to treat the subject, the first question we must address ourselves to is what does it mean psychologically to be culturally deprived or culturally disadvantaged. A person who is culturally deprived is more likely to be characterized by the things that will be mentioned than is a person who is not culturally deprived. However, what is said may not always apply equally to all individuals who are culturally deprived, but it will be more likely true than false.

First of all, being culturally deprived very often means being biologically deprived; that is, being hungry, underclothed, and in need of medical and dental treatment. Medical and dental treatment are often needed for the individual both because of his general level of poverty--being unable to afford these services--and because of the fact that the parents of the culturally deprived child or adolescent are very often unaware of the importance of medical and dental treatment.

Being hungry can have many ramifications. Breckenridge and Vincent (1962) have reviewed studies demonstrating that insufficient nutrition affects growth, behavior, and mental performance. From this work we can expect the hungry individual to pay less attention in the classroom than would be desired, and to have a reduced mental effectiveness. The work of Schorr (1964) also indicates that malnutrition has an effect on attitudes and behavior. Because of this biological deprivation we can make the generalization that the culturally disadvantaged person will be unable to delay gratification. This orientation toward immediate gratification or immediate reinforcement is generally coincident with a high state of biological need. The work of Hull (1952) and his associates in the animal laboratory has shown that as the drive state of the animal increases, that is, as the hours since the animal has last been fed increases, the tendency for the animal to perform the desired behavior if reward is delayed is greatly reduced. We can expect the same phenomena to apply when dealing with a human being if he is biologically deprived or has a history of biological deprivation, as is often the case with the culturally deprived individual. His behavior will be oriented toward satisfying immediate biological needs and he will not be willing to perform educational behaviors with a promise of reward forthcoming. LeShan (1952) has shown that lower class training features more immediate rewards and punishments leading to an orientation toward quick sequences of tension and relief. Mischel (1961) has shown that delinquents have a preference for immediate reinforcement. *Thus, the first general statement about what it means to be culturally deprived is that it means very often to be biologically deprived and, as a result of this and other training factors, unable to delay gratification.*

Secondly, to be culturally deprived very often means to have a lower score on an intelligence test (c.f. Klineberg, 1963--for Negroes). This is not to say that a culturally deprived individual has a reduced intelligence; rather, a culturally deprived individual has less of his intelligence potential developed than does an individual who has not suffered cultural deprivation. The low score is not native but experiential (Pettigrew, 1964).

The excellent work of Hunt (1961) in bringing together all available relevant literature dealing with the issue of predetermined development and fixed intelligence points out that cultural deprivation almost always produces less developed intelligence, but that remedial treatment or improvement undertaken in the years of childhood, even in early adolescence, can modify the situation substantially. Dramatic modifications have been evidenced in the studies of Skeels and Dye (1939) and Wellman (1940). In the Skeels and Dye study, orphans were taken to an institution for the feeble-minded and raised by the patients. Gains up to 40 IQ points resulted. Dennis (1960) has shown, in an orphanage in Teheran, that many children do not walk by four years of age. Why should this be so? It occurs because there is less stimulation in the culturally deprived home in the direction of developing cognitive, perceptual, and verbal skills. Our intelligence tests and the situations that they have been developed to predict for are situations that involve verbal, cognitive, and perceptual skills. This is obviously true of the classroom. In the classroom we call upon the students to manifest these three kinds of skills and all standardized intelligence and aptitude tests are weighted heavily in these three areas (as well as a fourth, numerical).

In the culturally deprived home, as mentioned before, the major orientation is toward the immediate gratification of biological needs. Much energy and emotional involvement by the parents must be spent on this task. Consequently, little energy and emotional involvement remain for the development of intelligence in the children. The work of Hunt (1961, 1964), Ausubel (1963), and Wolf (1964), among others, points up the fact that a major factor contributing to intellectual development is stimulation in the home by the parents. Moreover, this factor is of peak importance in the early years of life, according to Bloom (1964). The parents themselves in most culturally deprived homes have had little education and are themselves in the situation where their cognitive, perceptual, and verbal skills may be reduced. They are not aware of many instruments of education that are available for use in the home, and they do not have the time and the skill themselves to carry on conversations with their children which are necessary to develop verbal skills. Deutsch (1963), in his examination of homes in depressed areas, finds few educational objects and a general absence of parental stimulation appropriate for cognitive, perceptual, or verbal development. The findings of John (1963) lead her to conclude that the "acquisition of more abstract and integrative language seems to be hampered by the living conditions in the homes of lower-class children." This is supported by Bernstein (1962) who finds less language facility among the lower class. Siller (1957) finds less conceptual ability among low status children. *Thus, the second general statement about cultural deprivation is that it produces reduced intelligence as a function of lesser, cognitive, perceptual, and verbal skills.* However, it must be stressed again that this situation is not permanent, fixed, or unchangeable. It is a situation that can be rectified as a function of the educational situation as evidenced by the work of Boger (1952) and others mentioned before.

A third characteristic which is generally produced in conditions of cultural deprivation is an absence of achievement motivation. Achievement motivation, which has been widely described, discussed, and researched (c.f. McClelland et al., 1953; Atkinson, 1958) refers to the desire on the part of the individual to achieve either for the intrinsic satisfaction associated with achievement, or for the rewards society metes out as a function of achievement behavior. This is very strongly associated with the middle class, as McClelland has shown in his book *The Achieving Society* (1961). The American society, and particularly the middle class of American society, as shown also by the work of Rosen (1956), is extremely high in achievement motivation.

Where does achievement motivation come from? According to McClelland, achievement motivation is a result of rewards being offered for achievement behavior (i. e., approval) and punishments for failure. Consequently, the individual who is motivated or oriented to maximize rewards will perform achievement behavior. According to Winterbottom (1958) and to Rosen and D'Andrade (1959), achievement is further enhanced by identification and independence training. The parent puts much emphasis on achievement behavior in the middle class. As a result of success on the part of the potential achiever and consequent rewards, achievement motivation may well be developed. If the parents are themselves achievers, the development of this motivation in the child will be furthered. Excessive failure and punishment can produce in the individual a motive other than achievement motivation, namely: fear of failure. In the culturally deprived home there is little evidence that achievement is either rewarded or lack of achievement punished. There is little emphasis placed on academic achievement or cultural achievement on the part of the child, and the parent is not himself an achiever by virtue of his own upbringing and lack of present opportunities. The work of Bronfenbrenner (1961) suggests that academic competitiveness is a function of middle-class upbringing but not lower-class upbringing. Again, the reason for this is insufficient time and a minimum orientation in that direction on the part of the parents themselves. Kahl (1953) has shown that parents interested merely in getting by do not send their sons to college. *Consequently, we may state as our third generalization that cultural deprivation usually means having little achievement motivation.*

The fourth and last general area in which cultural deprivation has implications is that of attitudes toward self, attitude toward others, and attitudes toward the world. As a result of having to live in general hardship conditions, very often having reduced opportunities, being discriminated against, and living in a society that has the highest standard of living ever achieved and not being able to partake of this abundance, the individual may often develop a negative, cynical, fatalistic, and simple view of the world. He may often associate himself with undesirable or criminal elements, move in the direction of juvenile delinquency, and fall into the general clinical category known as psychopathic or sociopathic personality. The underprivileged person feels that society is doing little for him, giving him little opportunity, and so he is quite right in taking matters into his own hands, and in an asocial fashion, attempts to mold his own situation. If he does not behave asocially, he may simply adopt a set of attitudes which are very negatively related to society. These will be expected to appear in the classroom, since a classroom is a miniaturization of society, and the teacher a representative authority. Hieronymus (1951) has shown a substantial correlation between socio-economic status and attitudes toward education.

The attitude of the culturally deprived person toward others will be similar to his attitude toward the world to the extent that he sees others as being representative of, or exemplary of society in general. That is, he will be negatively-oriented toward authority figures and feel that manipulation is a reasonable way to gain his ends. With regard to the attitude that he has toward himself, we can expect that he will have a low level of aspiration, and realistically so, since he sees his contemporaries and his elders having little success in life and having little opportunity to improve their situation. He may come to expect this with regard to himself (Hieronymus, 1951) and consequently manifest a low level of aspiration and low self-expectations. He may, on the other hand, feel that his inability to improve is a function of his own inability and consequently develop low self-esteem. Ausubel and Ausubel (1963) and Goff (1954) have shown that social rejection among Negro children leads to low self-esteem and a low level of aspiration.

In reaction to his own unsuccessful situation in society and the unsuccessful situation of his friends and his parents, the culturally deprived person may either become extrapunitive or intrapunitive, using the Rosenzweig concept. That is, he may feel that the fault lies in himself and consequently have low self-esteem, or else he may react extrapunitively toward the source of his frustration via delinquent acts. In either case, low self-expectations and a low level of aspiration can be expected.

Thus, our fourth generalization is that cultural deprivation yields unfavorable attitudes toward self, others, and society, which, in turn, may result in delinquent behaviors.

We may say in conclusion that the implication of cultural deprivation for education is to produce individuals with an absence of *learning to learn* capability, to borrow a phrase from Bloom, Davis, and Hess (1965). Learning to learn for human beings encompasses the four principles discussed. A person who has learned to learn must be able to delay gratification or reinforcement, for the fruits of education are considerably delayed after the beginning of the effort. Learning to learn means having the appropriate skills on which education is based, namely, cognitive, perceptual, and verbal skills. Learning to learn means having the appropriate values, namely, values toward achievement. And finally, learning to learn means having the appropriate attitudes toward yourself and your environment. Having these qualities means being set to learn. Having these qualities means having the strategy for obtaining knowledge. Having these qualities means being able to uncover general solutions and general truths rather than always being restricted to the specific.

Being culturally deprived means not having learned to learn in many cases. What can the educator do for such a person? It is to this question that the remainder of the presentation will address itself.

When the culturally deprived child goes through school the situation only worsens. His deficit, relative to his middle-class counterparts, becomes cumulatively greater. Evidence for the accumulation and worsening of the deficit has been provided by Deutsch (1964) and Krugman (1961). Thus, schooling tends not to improve the situation by providing the necessary skills, attitudes, and values upon which learning is based; rather, the deficit becomes greater and greater as the years of education proceed. By the time adolescence is reached the culturally deprived student, according to data collected by Osborne (1960), shows reduced reading skills, relative to a nondeprived group, reduced arithmetic skills, and a lower mental age.

Let us now examine specifically what the teacher can do in order to better teach culturally deprived students. These suggestions will be modeled around the four major areas of deprivation as described in the beginning of the paper. First of all, the teacher should attempt to reduce the delay in reinforcement as much as possible. In a very practical sense this can be done by quick scoring of examinations, by providing the student with continual and immediate feedback as regards his performance, and, primarily, by constantly attempting to relate the school experience to real life experiences. Much effort is spent on education before the results of this effort can be obtained. Many students who drop out of school are not willing to tolerate this delay; among these are often the culturally deprived.

In order to moderate this delay the practical significance of education must constantly be pointed out to the culturally deprived student. In teaching the student to read, have him read the kinds of materials that he reads in his everyday experiences. If he is an adolescent in high school, and will soon be entering the world of work, have him read work instructions, want ads, and other kinds of materials that he will be reading in the real world. In mathematics have him work on problems such as a personal budget or financing a car or making calculations on a blueprint. In this way he will see the applicability of the effort he is expending in school to his real needs in life; this will provide substantial reductions in the delay of gratification or the delay of reinforcement. Too often our school situations represent an ivory tower with respect to reality. It is necessary that this distance be bridged. While it is not entirely possible for the teacher to do it by himself, he can facilitate matters by always keeping in mind the fact that the culturally deprived student may not be able to delay reinforcement. He must always think of what he is teaching in the sense of what practical significance does this have for the student.

In the area of skill training, what is it that the teacher can do with respect to the culturally deprived student? The teacher should be aware of the fact that perceptual skills underlie reading and verbal skills, which in turn, underlie cognitive skills. When a student is unable to perform satisfactorily in a cognitive task, it may be because he is in need of remedial help on verbal or perceptual levels. While the teacher may not always be the most skilled person in providing this remedial help, it is necessary that he be able to diagnose where such help is needed and recommend the students to remedial programs, where they exist.

One useful point would be to attempt to teach at the perceptual level as much as is possible. Teach by showing, by doing, use gestures, use pictures, use diagrams, use schematics, use the chalkboard. Aim for the perceptual level and attempt to avoid the verbal level as much as possible. Give the students puzzles, like jigsaw puzzles, Chinese puzzles, and other kinds of puzzles that require some degree of perceptual discrimination in order to improve their skill at the perceptual level. Have them read as much as possible, even in courses where reading is not directly the subject matter to be taught.

In vocational training programs constantly have the student read instructions, read diagrams, read sketches, and read specifications. Try to talk to students as much as possible. It has been suggested above that teaching be done by showing rather than by talking. This may appear to be contradictory. It is not! By talking is meant conversing, as one converses to pass the time of day, not teaching via extended and complex verbiage. To improve the students' verbal skills they must hear words, but this must occur primarily outside of the pressures of the formal learning process. Through conversation verbal skills are developed. When dealing with many students this is very difficult, but insofar as it is possible, talk. Talk to the students to provide them with the conversation and the verbal stimulation that is absent in the home. This is especially true with younger students.

In the area of values and achievement motivation, the magic word is REWARD. The child or adolescent should be rewarded frequently and punished rarely. He should be rewarded for performances which are less than perfect but have some merit to them. The work of Skinner (1938) in the animal laboratory has shown that behavior can be shaped through a technique called successive approximations. Using this technique, behaviors which bear only slight resemblance to the desired end behavior are reinforced, and gradually this approximate behavior is shaped in the direction of the desired behavior by reinforcing behaviors that are more and more similar to the desired end behavior. The same can be done with humans in the area of achievement motivation. By reinforcing only minimally successful behavior to start with, the likelihood of successful behavior will increase and it will be possible to reward more successful behavior in the future, and hopefully shape achievement-oriented behavior.

Punishment, on the other hand, will lead to fear of failure as the work of Atkinson and collaborators (1958) has shown. Estes (1944) has shown that punishment does not cause behavior to disappear; it simply inhibits its occurrence in the presence of the punishing agent. If failure is punished by the teacher, then the behaviors that lead to the failure may not appear within eye range of the teacher, but they will not cease to exist in the repertoire of the child or the adolescent. Reward, on the other hand, creates a behavior pattern within the individual. Therefore, when dealing with culturally deprived students, for whom achievement motivation is minimal, failure should not be punished. The teacher should wait for some glimmer of successful behavior or achievement-oriented behavior and then reward it. He should attempt, through the generous use of reward, to develop an achievement pattern in the student. This may be facilitated by posing simple tasks or simple problems for the student where the likelihood of success is great, and then rewarding successful performance. The difficulty of the tasks can be gradually increased as the generous use of reward has made the possibility or probability of success more likely. Moreover, the rewards should be as tangible as possible. The research of Zigler and DeLabry (1962) has shown that tangible rewards are more successful than intangible rewards with lower-class students, while the reverse holds true with middle-class students. Try to make the rewards as tangible as possible. This of course is limited by the opportunities available to the teacher. One cannot be giving away financial rewards, for instance, or candy, for every good performance. In many cases, the only rewards available to the teacher are such intangible ones as praise, or recognition, or approval. These are obviously important too. Make them as obvious and concrete as possible.

When it is necessary to use criticism make this criticism objective. Criticize the work and not the person performing the work. The Lewin Lippitt, and White studies (1939) gave clear evidence for the fact that group leaders using personal criticism were much less popular than were leaders whose criticism was clearly objective.

Finally, the all important area of attitudes is an area where a teacher can make major impressions and inroads into the problems of the culturally deprived. The teacher is a representative of society. He is, moreover, an authority figure second only to the parents as a major source of identification. A teacher can take advantage of this—especially when the parent is not a good identification figure. Using the parent as an identification figure simply perpetuates the ethic of the deprived. To change attitudes of the deprived student toward himself, others, and society the teacher must be warm, understanding, and sympathetic, in short, take a personal interest in the student. If he is likeable, and yet firm, and takes an interest in the student, the student will attempt to emulate him and use him as an identification figure (Witty, 1947). To the extent that the teacher incorporates prevalent social values, these will be transmitted to the culturally deprived student through identification. If the teacher is fair, then the students' attitudes toward society may well be changed.

Many of the successful remedial projects, such as the Manhattanville Project, have shown that a key to success is working with parents. The teacher should attempt to involve the parent, and work with the parent as much as possible, for if he can change the attitude of the parent the possibility of changing the attitudes of the student are double-barreled, as a result of his own direct influence and the influence of the parent over whom he has exerted some influence. The fact that involvement enhances the probability of attitude change has been well documented. Industrial studies such as those of Coch and French (1948), and studies such as that of Lewin (1952), clearly illustrate that individuals who feel that they are involved are more likely to have their attitudes changed.

Also, get the students involved in providing some of their own direction in the classroom. Again, the classic Lewin, Lippitt, and White (1939) studies demonstrated that attitudes, motivations, and satisfaction were all increased as a result of a democratic group situation where the group exerted some influence over its own direction. This approach, which has often been called the learner-centered or pupil-centered approach, has been shown in some studies to be highly successful. Culturally deprived students must be able to take on the role of authority in order that their attitudes toward authority can be changed.

Outside of a group-centered or pupil-centered approach, which enables the group to have some control over its fate, the use of role playing is also a way of changing attitudes. The study of King and Janis (1956) demonstrates that role playing can be used effectively to change attitudes. Let the students play the game of parents and children. Let some of the students be the children and some of the students be the parents and have them act out a home situation. Give them a feeling of what it is like to be a parent. Give them a feeling of what it is like to be an authority figure in society. Let them identify with society and attempt to defend society by playing the role of an authority. This may well change their attitudes towards the very society which they often find intolerable. Playing a role which is dissonant with ones attitudes has been shown to cause those attitudes to change (Brehm, 1960).

Use praise and approval to change their self-esteem and self-acceptance. Let them know that you think they are worthwhile persons and are capable of good performance. Provide them with tasks of graded difficulty leading to success in order to change their level of aspiration. Jucknat (1938) has shown that aspirations go up as a function of success, while Sears (1940) demonstrated that success leads to the setting of realistic goals. One must be careful of pushing students too hard and too fast toward higher levels of aspiration Many culturally deprived students have what Dollard and Miller (1950) call an approach-avoidance conflict with regard to success; they both desire it and fear it. As they expend more and more effort and are pushed closer and closer to success their fear becomes stronger than their desire (Brown, 1948). Dollard and Miller recommend that efforts be made at this point to reduce the fear, rather than increase the desire. The teacher, by leading the student toward success through the use of graded tasks, can reduce the fear associated with school.

Some students will need discipline and will have to be handled in a firm authoritative way; others will need warmth, acceptance, and understanding, and will have to be dealt with in a yielding way. The work of Hunt (1965) is applicable here. Hunt has spoken of the differential diagnosis—differential treatment technique. What this means is that people are different and the teacher must become aware of the differences and not attempt to teach or treat people in the same way. They must be treated in terms of the differences. In the case of a student who is in need of authority, handle him in authoritative fashion. In the case of a student who is in need of acceptance by authority and permissiveness, handle him in a permissive fashion.

If the teacher keeps some of these points in mind, then the culturally deprived student may well be able to overcome his initial experiential deficit and cumulative deficit and derive a useful education from his school experiences.

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PRELIMINARY NOTES ON AN ANTHROPOLOGICAL VIEW OF THE CULTURALLY DEPRIVED

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From an anthropological point of view, any program designed at aiding the "culturally deprived" may be seen as a problem in induced culture change. Thus, such terms as diffusion, acculturation, ethnocentrism, contact, loom large in any anthropological discussion of culture change. As this paper develops, these terms will be explored as meaningfully as possible.

As a starting point, certain premises about the nature of society and the nature of culture must be stated. Society then, roughly defined, is an aggregate of individuals who, having worked together and lived together over a period of time, develop an esprit de corps based on cooperation, predictability, and a commonly held set of ideas, values, and ways of doing things. Culture, roughly speaking, is the totality of these commonly held set of ideas, values, and ways of doing things of a particular society.

All cultures are subject to change, and indeed do change. The anthropologist disputes any argument implying that attempts to change situations are doomed by virtue of man's immutable nature. He, the anthropologist, argues not for a change in "human nature" but for a change in "human culture," e. g., the way men do things, the beliefs and values they hold. He bases this belief on his certain knowledge that change may take place internally or may be induced through contact and experimentation. The problem posed, therefore, is not: Should change be attempted, but rather, when is change necessary? When is change appropriate? When is change feasible, and, when the above have been answered, how does one make the desired changes?

The anthropologist, generally working with small units of mankind, has, in the past, failed to recognize that as a society grows and becomes more complex, then parts of that society may develop sets of cultural values which are in part related and overlapping, and in part very different. It was not until Warner's study of Yankee City, which demonstrated that values and behavior were directly related to social class, that American anthropologists recognized and accepted the idea of sub-cultures related to, but different from, the parent culture. It is sufficient at this point to state that a significant proportion of the American population, by virtue of historic accident, has developed a way of life sufficiently removed from the main cultural developments in America to be seen as a sub-culture, and further, as a sub-culture whose values are objectively detrimental to the welfare of its citizens.

It is hardly likely that anyone will dispute the statement that it is now necessary, appropriate, and feasible that the sub-culture of the disadvantaged be changed. What remains is how this change is to be effected.

From the anthropologist's perspective it is perhaps best to view the people of this sub-culture as he would the people of any alien culture: similar to him by virtue of universal manhood, different in respect to behavioral patterns. Seen in this light, comparisons, analogues, parallels with other situations known to the anthropologists may yield clues. Some general observations of the sub-culture of the disadvantaged are as follows: they suffer from a wide variety of mental and physical illnesses and social pathologies;[1] they lack political control over their own destinies;[2] their nuclear families are often fragmented and disorganized;[3] they do not readily accept aid from middle-class institutions;[4] they attempt as often as is practicable, to give aid to one another rather than seeking institutional aid;[5] they often accept the parent culture's estimation of their "innate" inferiority;[6] at the same time they may react against this evaluation of the parent culture by a bouleversement of the parent culture's values.[7]

Reissman has argued that the "culturally deprived" child understands the advantages of an education in our world. What prevents him from fully utilizing the educational system is the condescension and lack of cultural understanding of the teacher, and the child's unique cultural perspective about the teacher and the school.[8] One may say that the disadvantaged recognize the good things of life as represented in the middle class world of T. V., radio and the magazines, but they do not know how to take advantage of the few opportunities presented to them.

The passage of time has allowed for the sub-cultural roots to take hold and sink deep, and change will surely not be rapid nor uniformly successful. As a start, the anthropologist would urge that the prospective teacher be deeply familiar with the following:

A. The Anthropological concept of race. Because so many of the disadvantaged are Negroes, it would be well for the teacher to understand the development of the concept of race as a classificatory and taxonomic device for understanding human movements in time and in space; the concept of race as a noninvidious device for comparing populations; its present outmoded use for many anthropologists.

B. An understanding of the nature and function of culture. To understand the mechanics and operations of culture is to gain some knowledge of oneself, and by extension, understanding of the behavior of others.

In the course of studying efforts at inducing culture change, the anthropologist offers, from his observations of success and failure, the following tentative guidelines:[9]

1. Know the culture in which the work is to be done. This point is so obvious, yet needs belaboring. It is impossible to effect a change in a culture without unforeseen (and possibly disastrous) consequences when the institutions of a culture are not understood as a total entity. It is expected that in the months ahead, the sub-culture of the impoverished will be explored and made known as fully as possible.

2. As an obvious corollary, the worker must know his own culture.

3. Take advantage of the pragmatic nature of people. Years of disillusionment have created cynicism in the ranks of the culturally deprived. Cynicism can only be removed by demonstrable successes. Thus, it is not enough to simply encourage a talented writer in an English class; perhaps a better tactic would be to submit the talented boy's work to a school magazine, a national scholastic contest, etc.

4. Do not ask people to threaten what may be an already very narrow margin of material security. Extra-curricular activities may be an important means of developing rapport and understanding, and feelings of pride in success, but if a boy must work after school to help support his family, then demands upon his free time may be more detrimental than beneficial.

5. Use existing community leadership whenever feasible. The success of the Cornell University Medical Project on the Navajo Reservation is at least partially due to the enlistment of the medicine men as respected medical peers.[10]

6. As a corollary of the above, learn to detect who the community leaders are. As a result of our middle-class cultural bias we are apt to seek out lawyers, physicians, "respectable" ministers, police officials, and politicians as the leadership "element." The choice of these personnel may be at total variance with the views of the community. In a Puerto Rican neighborhood it may be the local herbalista who runs a tiny, almost insignificant botanica where she dispenses good-luck charms, love potions, and advice. In a Negro community, it may be a poolroom proprietor, a tavern owner, the beauty salon or barbershop proprietor. In all poor communities, the itinerant preacher, the store-front minister, the fortune-teller, the spiritualist may be of vast but undetermined

importance in creating and maintaining the values of these communities.

7. Think in terms of the economic and social potential in the wider community. It goes without saying, that giving training for jobs which may soon be automated is merely a stopgap effort, and is more likely to exacerbate the situation than to ameliorate it.

8. Select the more "progressive" students for more intensive teaching than the more "conservative" who may need the teaching even more. This point is, of course, open to sharp debate. Our argument, however, is not the naive "practical" one, that with time and manpower being limited, it is wisest to concentrate upon those who assure some success. Clearly, the above approach is one which simply weasels out of difficult work. Our argument for the effort toward teaching the "progressive" is as follows: the Cornell Medical Project[11] found that its first concrete successes came when it trained Navajos who had been in the Armed Forces, i.e., somewhat acculturated Navajos, to act as medical liaisons between the Cornell medical practitioners and the Navajo community. Their ability to interpret to the Navajo some or all of the complexities of western medical technique helped ease fear in Navajo breasts. Further, the acceptance of the Navajo medical aide by the Whites as an invaluable addition to their medical team impressed the Navajo with the sincerity and goodwill of the physicians. This approach will be utilized in the forthcoming Legal Services to the Poor Project in Newark, where an as yet undetermined number of poor "progressives" will be trained by lawyers in their legal rights, then encouraged to spread their knowledge in their communities. Additionally, these law trainees will act as liaisons in an effort to induce the poor to utilize the professional legal services when necessary.[12]

9. Require payment for services. Some explanation for this statement must be made. In a field situation, anthropologists have discovered that free dispensation of even such cheap patent medicines as aspirin has been met with rebuffs and evasions. There are two reasons for failure to accept or grudging acceptance: (1) The offer of free aid places the recipient in the position of indebtedness, often further compounding his feelings of inadequacy and inferiority in the presence of the donor. (2) An offer of something for nothing is suggestive of an inferior product. It is almost universally accepted that the best things in life are not free; rather, you get what you pay for is pragmatically acknowledged. Thus, the teacher, the community worker, etc., cannot expect to be accepted in an alien culture by emphasizing that his endeavors are a labor of love. They may indeed be, but it is wiser to stress the fact that he is being paid to do his job, and he has been chosen because of his expertise.

10. As a corollary, one's expertise should give one authority, and this authority should be presented as a fact to the class. There is no suggestion here of undisciplined exercise of power, but a simple stressing of acknowledged authority in a particular area. It is likely that groups will respond with respect and attention when they feel the strength of authority. Fragmentary evidence at the moment suggests that this approach is probably most felicitous among Puerto Ricans.[13]

11. As a second corollary, do not anticipate being loved. Anticipate, rather, a series of defeats, disappointments, and hostility directed to you. It is hardly likely that after the years of distress and pain, the culturally deprived will accept overnight the "new" teacher as a humane individual dedicated to his vocation and to the unique needs of his pupils. It is much more likely that you will be greeted with cynicism and perhaps, contempt. Initial successes for pupils may be greeted as long overdue (this position is clearly justified). Some students may exploit you unmercifully, simply developing more refined hustlers' techniques in your classroom (do not be surprised at the ingenuity of your students!). If, for whatever personal reasons, the need to be loved overrides gratifications such as monetary reward and inner satisfactions at success, leave the field.

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10. McDermott, Walsh, et al. "Introducing Modern Medicine in a Navajo Community," Science, vol. 131, Jan. 22, 1960, pp. 197-205, and Jan. 29, 1960, pp. 280-287.

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13. Personal communication from Elena Padilla, author of Up From Puerto Rico, Miss Padilla pointed out to me that one of the reasons I was failing to induce Puerto Ricans to attend the Cornell Medical College-New York Medical Center clinic was the use of the phrase "please come," and the offering of a wide choice of dates and hours. She suggested the phrase "you will come" and suggested that I limit the choices of date and hour. The Puerto Rican has developed, through the compedrazgo system, a padron relationship to people he perceives as being in power. He will readily do what a padron wishes on the assumption that the padron will come to his aid when he is in acute need. My use of "please" placed me in the category of equal or inferior, hence no one to obey and no one to use later. When we instituted Miss Padilla's suggestion, attendance at the clinic jumped from around 40 per cent to over 80 per cent.

A BRIEF PRACTICAL ANALYSIS OF THE INSTRUCTIONAL CHALLENGE TO JOB ORIENTED LEARNING FOR A SEGMENT OF SECONDARY SCHOOL POPULATION

SIDNEY N. CHERNAK

BALTIMORE SCHOOL SYSTEM

The unemployed out-of-school youth is the subject of increasing attention and concern to the political and educational leaders in large urban communities. Civic organizations, civil rights groups, and social welfare agencies are turning their spotlights on the problems which face a large segment of the youthful population of large cities. The lack of direction, inadequate preparation for living in our urban society, and apparent shrinkage in the capacity of expanding industry to absorb untrained workers are pictured as serious threats to the sociopolitical-economy of the metropolitan urban centers which constitute the megalopolis. Baltimore is sharing this concern.

AN APPROACH

The Carrollton School was established in September, 1963, with the belief that a properly designed program with a job-oriented approach could redirect potential dropouts. The occupational training experiences were therefore selected with consideration for the ability and interest levels of the students who would in all likelihood be attracted by this program. The goal was employment, following training. Classroom work was to be closely related to the shop and work experiences and would be functional. The educational leadership was chosen in such a way as to insure or at least promote creative approaches to teaching.

Specific goals were identified to assist young people to:

1. Develop economic and vocational competence
2. Acquire and use the basic skills
3. Develop moral and ethical values
4. Be an effective citizen
5. Be an effective family member
6. Develop and maintain sound mental and physical health

PROGRAM OF STUDIES

General Education

1. Communication Skills
2. Mathematics
3. Social Studies
4. Physical Education
5. Music

Job Preparation Training

1. Custodial Service
2. Duplicating Services
3. Family Service Aide
4. Food Preparation and Service
5. Home Mechanics
6. Lawn and Garden Care
7. Painting, Decorating, and Furniture Refinishing
8. Shoe Repair
9. Small Appliance Repair
10. Valet Service

THE STUDENT BODY

There are approximately 550 boys and girls in attendance, distributed in a proportion of two boys to one girl. Their ages range from 15 to 20 years; the median age is 17.5 years. Mental abilities range from 55 I.Q. to 97 I.Q. The average student performs at fourth grade level in reading and arithmetic.

All of these students have experienced failure in school; many have repeated two grades. The most recent educational experience of the majority of the student body was in a three-year program of Special Education in the junior high school.

Many of these young people come from large families; some are from broken homes; most have parents who are unskilled workers with a limited education; others live in foster homes because they have been neglected or completely abandoned by their parents. Often the only family income is that earned by the mothers; in other cases, the family is supported by welfare funds.

THE FACULTY

The nature of the student body, with its history of failure and its background of family instability, makes the selection of teachers a crucial decision. Personal qualities such as empathy, the ability to accept students as individuals, the desire to teach, and devotion to duty take on a greater importance than the more readily evaluated experience and professional background.

INTERESTING FEATURES OF THE PROGRAM

Carrollton School operates on a basic 30-period schedule, not including lunch periods, from 9 a.m. to 2:30 p.m. During the course of a week, the student engages in approximately 15 periods of job preparation training and 15 periods of general education subjects.

The entering student follows a schedule which provides exploratory experiences in two job preparation areas. At the conclusion of a nine-week period he may select two additional areas for exploration, or he may choose to specialize in one occupational field. The exploratory process continues until the student selects an area of interest in which he will specialize.

The vocational education offerings at Carrollton reflect the cluster concept of organization in which training is given for a family of related occupations in a single shop. Teachers attempt to develop skills in one job within a cluster before introducing the student to training in a related occupation. Thus, saleable skills are developed early in the program against the possibility of an early withdrawal by the student.

The use of the community as a laboratory illustrates the creative approach to education used by the faculty. The Lawn and Garden Care classes have assumed responsibility for the maintenance and beautification of a small neighborhood park. Custodial Service classes broaden their experience by traveling to other community schools to practice their maintenance skills on a variety of buildings. Students in the Family Service Aide classes provide volunteer services in a community nursing home.

In other shops students gain practical experience by servicing and repairing articles brought in by pupils and teachers. The school cafeteria is operated by the Food Preparation and Service classes under the guidance of their teacher.

Teachers search out work-study opportunities for their students and often use their own time to perform coordinating duties. Pupils' schedules are adjusted in a variety of ways to meet the demands of their work-study assignments. A coordinator is being assigned to the school.

JOB PREPARATION COURSE DESCRIPTIONS

Custodial Services: The student in the custodial course receives thorough training in the skills required to properly clean and maintain office buildings, industrial establishments, churches, and school buildings. His duties include sweeping, dusting, wall cleaning, window cleaning, floor sealing, waxing, buffing, metal polishing, maintenance of sanitary facilities, care of grounds, minor care of heating and ventilating equipment, and receiving supplies.

Duplicating Services: The instruction in Duplicating Services covers a wide variety of skills used in the business and retail selling fields. Students develop competence in setting up and operating spirit duplicators and mimeograph machines, collating, hand binding, plastic binding, stitching, packing, wrapping, labeling, shipping, receiving, and maintenance of stock inventory records.

Family Service Aide: This course was established to satisfy the need for properly trained people who can serve as day maids and mothers' helpers in private homes or assist in nursing homes, hospitals, and similar institutions. Instruction is given in care of the elderly, child care, meal planning and preparation, clothing construction and repairs, and housekeeping.

Food Preparation and Service: The Foods course provides training for students who wish to work in places where food is prepared and served in quantity. Employment opportunities are available in restaurants, cafeterias, hospitals, and nursing homes. Menu planning and using the cash register are included with the instruction in food preparation and service.

Home Mechanics: The purpose of the Home Mechanics course is to prepare students to perform a variety of home repairs. These activities include glazing, care and maintenance of screens and storm windows, floor sealing and refinishing, floor tile laying, door fitting, care and maintenance of window sash, and minor remodeling jobs in the home. The student completing this course should be able to find employment with a small firm engaged in the home remodeling business.

Lawn and Flower Care: Instruction in the Lawn and Flower Care course is geared to develop the skills usually associated with the functions of the paid gardener. Training is given in lawn cutting and edging, trimming and care of shrubbery, pruning, plant propagation, soil testing, and care and maintenance of equipment.

Painting, Decorating, and Furniture Refinishing: Painting, Decorating, and Furniture Refinishing students receive instruction which is designed to prepare them for employment with small concerns involved in exterior and interior decorating or in furniture refinishing. The course emphasizes the use of various painting techniques, application of wallpaper and other wall coverings, and the basic skills of furniture refinishing.

Shoe Repairing: Students in the Shoe Repairing course can expect to obtain employment in shoe repair shops and shoe factories. They learn to replace heels and soles, mend uppers, dye shoes, and make minor orthopedic adjustments.

Small Appliance Repairs: A good appliance repairman can obtain employment in the service department of an appliance distributor or he can set up his own business with a very small investment. In the appliance shop students are taught to diagnose and repair domestic electrical appliances such as toasters, electric irons, broilers, waffle irons, and mixers.

Valet Services: Students in the Valet Service course prepare for employment in cleaning and pressing establishments, small tailor shops, and large hotels. They are taught to use a variety of pressing machines, hand steam irons, and spotting equipment. They also learn to mend clothing and perform minor alterations.

GENERAL EDUCATION COURSE DESCRIPTIONS

Communication Skills: Attention is focused upon a continuation of the developmental reading program, using basal textbooks. There is also an increased use of supplemental materials relating to job preparation.

Oral communication: Emphasis is placed upon developing self-expression through using the telephone teletrainer, conducting interviews, role playing, and good English usage.

Written communication: The correct form for writing business and social letters, and notes of various kinds is stressed. Spelling is taught systematically in accordance with pupils' reading achievement levels and their job preparation areas.

Mathematics: The fundamental processes are reviewed and practiced. Situational and meaningful arithmetic including units on installment buying, budgeting, banking, and insurance are taught. A thorough study of family finance is also included.

Social Studies: Units on government, driver education, public health services, adult education, elementary economics, and legal aid are taught. Citizenship and its responsibilities are emphasized.

Occupational information and guidance is stressed. "A Handbook for You, the Worker" is used as a text. Every effort is made to correlate the work in job training with the pupil's actual job preparation area.

The Carrollton School was established to provide pre-employment training for youth with special needs. The major goal of the school is to produce responsible and vocationally competent citizens, and all efforts of the faculty and administration are geared to this one purpose. Favorable student and community response give indications that Carrollton has been founded upon valid assumptions. Increased employment opportunities for these students, made possible by an enlightened public, can make this experiment an unqualified success.

CHARACTERISTICS OF DISADVANTAGED YOUTH

Environmental: In characterizing the disadvantaged youth in a student body one should not separate the children from their environment. The literature grows daily and the story that is painted on numerous canvases, no matter who the author is, bears a marked resemblance.

The culturally deprived are persons who have had few opportunities to take on urban mores and values. High mobility resulting in patchwork education frequently takes its toll in the absence of motivation to cope with life's problems. Thus, the result of this environmental climate is the lack of desire to assume community responsibility. Parents of culturally disadvantaged frequently lack the time, knowledge, and understanding needed to provide the necessary out-of-school learning experiences. Families are frequently fractured by separations, physical and emotional ills of some of its members, economic pressures, and indifference. Low aspirations show up as below average achievement levels.

The environment is further characterized by the outward signs of deterioration of substandard housing, which is usually overcrowded, lacking in privacy, and having the minimum requirements of sanitation.

Thus, inner-city, culturally disadvantaged children have a complete inventory of hopes which turn to disappointments, loves which become hates, strengths which in the school environment may show up as weaknesses, needs which are seldom satisfied. Small wonder that they swell the ranks of the tragic dropouts and create heartaches for their families and themselves, while presenting critical and difficult problems for their communities.

Educational Characteristics and Tributaries: These characteristics can best be described by dividing them into three categories. It must be understood that these elements may or may not be present at all and that the degree of intensity will vary.

Physical Characteristics

Weakness in hearing
Defects of speech (may also be psychological)
Diseased tonsils and adenoids
Decayed and neglected teeth
Dietary deficiencies

Emotional Manifestations

Easily excited
Shy—backing away
Oversensitive to weakness which comes into focus
Repressive with peers, teachers, and others
Apathetic—lacking in drive, ambition
Unmotivated—"I'm here, teach me."
Impulsive
Suspicious of all authority
Frustrated by standards beyond his achievement

Mental Processes

Weak powers of attention to many school tasks
Low performance in defining, analyzing, and evaluating
Retardation in distinguishing situations, goals, and standards
Absence of, or severe shortage in imaginative thought
Failure to make transfers
Weak in ability to reason
Prefers to manipulate the concrete rather than to understand the abstract

NEEDS OF DISADVANTAGED YOUTH

From the observation of students in this category it is safe to assume some of these needs:

Identification with one or more teachers: He needs to be known as an individual and recognized as a person by at least one faculty member who goes "out of his way" to do this. This faculty—student contact need not be more than a few minutes a day, but it must be regular and must be initiated, at least in the beginning, by the teacher.

Understanding of self: These students need the assistance of competent insightful counselors and teachers to help them assess their strengths and weaknesses in an environment which represents no threat.

Feeling of belonging: Since the students in this category are frequently self-conscious of their shortcomings they need to be invited by an extended hand.

Guidance in depth: Opportunities for growth in school and horizons beyond school need to be identified and connected to the abilities which are either latent or discovered.

Balance between success and failure: Natural situations must be provided for recognition and encouragement of success, while sincere and honest evaluation techniques need to be employed to point up shortcomings as springboards to improvement.

Motivation: Since these students frequently are short in self-motivation or family motivation, it is incumbent upon the school staff to make masterful use of techniques which will awaken students and spur them to reach toward ever higher goals.

Realistic learning situations: Skill in teaching techniques will dictate the rate and intensity of instruction which must be tailored to the capacity and goals of the culturally disadvantaged youth.

Live with and respect for others: The meaning of freedom, respect for the dignity of one's fellow man, and an active interest in social problems need to be cultivated.

Interest in government: Through participation in school self-government and classroom activities students need to be lead to respect rules, laws, and their meaning, as well as the valuable attribute of self-control. An increased assumption of responsibility should be manifested.

Development of recognizable skills: Exercises with tools, equipment, and other media should be realistic. Students should have an opportunity to develop confidence in their abilities to perform with a high degree of recognizable skill.

Family responsibility: Carefully designed experiences should be provided in order to assist students in developing an appreciation for family and responsibility for family life.

Communication skills: A variety of opportunities and vehicles for self-expression should be provided.

PERSONAL CHARACTERISTICS OF TEACHERS

Acceptance of the disadvantaged youth: A teacher who rejects these children, either overtly or by default, by whatever means he cares to employ will not stimulate any warmth in his pupil-teacher relationship. Some teachers, who themselves have come from the ranks of the disadvantaged, are the strongest rejectors.

Understanding: This characteristic can be developed. It does not mean "feeling sorry" for an individual. It means having insights and showing respect for what children wear, say and speak—and how they do it.

Sympathetic: It is not enough just to know the causes of a student's discomfort or disability in the educational process.

Alertness: In order to capitalize upon the abilities and interests of students, teachers must be attuned to the signals which students toss out from time to time.

Skill in performance: A teacher must be able to demonstrate a high skill level in anything which he wishes to teach.

Self-confidence: This trait is easily tagged by students and colleagues alike. A teacher needs to possess this in abundance. It must be based upon genuine accomplishment.

Ability to shift directions: Knowing when to set plans aside and when to bend or amend rules without losing the respect of classes and individuals is a fine asset.

Amenable to change: With technology on the move and increased knowledge in the world, teachers must preserve a flexibility and maintain an open mind.

Being imaginative: Effective teachers are constantly inventing better and more dramatic ways of teaching.

Possession of faith: The display of faith in young people by teachers frequently challenges the former to attain goals which normally are out of reach.

Self-discipline: Since teachers are first placed upon a pedestal by parents and students, they must be wary of being toppled off. This requires considerable control and skill.

Comfortable attitude: Parents, fellow staff members, and others of all origins should be received with genuine warmth.

Interest in people: This interest should be translated into a desire and willingness to see and deal with people.

Eagerness to learn: A teacher, above all other people, should recognize the need for constant learning and self-improvement.

SKILLS, KNOWLEDGES AND UNDERSTANDINGS OF TEACHERS

This inventory is presented here hopefully and optimistically with the full knowledge that we would gladly settle for a fraction of these in every profile of teachers who are practicing the art.

Ability to Create a Wholesome Climate for Learning

Skill in organization of classroom so that routines are treated efficiently and with dispatch so that a maximum amount of time is used in the instruction process with individuals or groups.

A thorough knowledge of, and the ability to apply the psychology of motivation.

Performing skill must be evident in demonstrations.

A thorough understanding of human growth and development.

A knowledge of, and skill in using a variety of effective teaching methods.

An interest in, and initiative in exploring the school community.

A willingness to devote a reasonable amount of time to school connected activities beyond the call to duty.

Clear understanding of the fusion of method and content.

Ability to diagnose difficulties and plan remedial materials and approaches.

Skill in communication with students, colleagues, and others.

Understanding of our emerging conditions of life and our national and humanitarian goals.

Sympathetic understanding of the emotional stress and anxieties of children and parents.

Ability to permit students to do a variety of things all centered around a core of learning.

Skill in moving from the practical and concrete to the generalization or abstract.

Skill in encouraging students to participate in planning and in the assumption of increasing responsibility for the efficient operation of an activity.

Willingness to experiment with new materials, techniques, and procedures.

Using initiative in keeping up-to-date on new industrial processes.

Ability to relate well with colleagues and to work cooperatively on school-wide projects.

CONCLUSION

Students drop out of school because they can foresee no immediate rewards for continued attendance. Many of them have a history of failure throughout their school careers. Lack of ability, little regard for the value of education, disinterested parents, unstable home conditions, poverty, physical disability, and low level of aspiration are but a few of the factors contributing to their lack of progress in school.

Most of these dropouts are confident that they will easily obtain employment, but they quickly become disillusioned by the scarcity of jobs available to people with little education and no saleable skills. Employment trends indicate that they can expect a continuing decrease in jobs which can be filled by the unskilled and undereducated applicant.

No one should have any difficulty in supplying evidence which will support the contention that it is far more wholesome and economical to educate people for their own economic competence and well-being than it is to distribute charity, and through this act deprive people of their self-respect.

With the struggle against poverty in full swing, job training becomes a major weapon. The deeds will be recorded by the teachers who man the classrooms. The teacher training institutions share the responsibility with the school system in motivation, training, stimulation, and retraining of staff to insure the maximum service to the majority of youth in our secondary schools.

MEETING THE NEEDS OF DISADVANTAGED YOUTH ASSIGNED TO A DISCIPLINARY SCHOOL

MARCUS A. FOSTER

PHILADELPHIA SCHOOL SYSTEM

The O. V. Catto School is a disciplinary school in the School District of Philadelphia. Boys from approximately one half of the geographic area of the city are sent to the school. The District Superintendent assigns a boy to Catto upon the recommendation of a Principal. Most of the boys have engaged in disruptive behavior to the extent that it is not profitable to them nor their peers to attempt to meet their needs in the regular classroom.

The 400 boys who comprise the student body range in age from eight to seventeen plus. Eighty-seven per cent come from the junior and senior high school. Their IQ range is from 55 to 130, the median being 90.

There is usually a 100 per cent turnover in the pupil population during the course of the year. Some boys return to regular school, others are sent to custodial institutions, and others enter the world of work.

SOME CHARACTERISTICS OF CATTO BOYS

Family Life: For the most part, Catto boys come from broken homes. The mother, aunt, or grandmother is usually the dominant figure. Where the male is present (the husband or paramour) he is often ineffective in guiding the boy. Sometimes the usually absent male is called upon to visit the home and administer corporal punishment which is often harsh and excessive. The family is constantly plagued by chronic economic crises and frequently turns to the Department of Public Assistance and other agencies for help.

The homes are usually crowded, noisy, and totally lacking facilities that are conducive to good study habits. There is a dearth of reading material and adequate study space.

Many of the parents manifest symptoms of social and emotional disturbance that are prevalent among the boys such as the inability to relate well with one's peers, inability to accept the consequence of one's actions, feeling of guilt, hostility and inordinate aggressiveness.

While the foregoing is an accurate description of most of the familes served by Catto, there are many exceptions. Some of the boys have parents who are policemen, school teachers, and clergymen. They have brothers and sisters who are college students and who are doing well in school.

School Progress: One of the most common characteristics of Catto boys is their lack of school success. Some have been tested and labeled "mentally retarded." All appear to be educationally retarded. This stems from many factors; not the least among these are their acting out behavior, anti-intellectualism, the cummulative effect of not having mastered the basic skills, inability to set long range goals and perform the necessary intermediate steps to reach them, the irrelevance of many school activities to life as the boys have come to know it, and the failure to accept the values of the culture which they view as alien and hostile —thus their rejection of them.

Lack of proficiency in the communicating skills (listening, speaking, reading, and writing) is common. The most crippling deficiency is severe retardation in reading. The median instructional level as determined by an informal reading inventory is 2. These boys who have failed to learn after years of exposure in school begin to think that they cannot learn. Some of their teachers develop this attitude about them.

Social and Emotional Development: Failure to have their needs met by the home, school, church, and other social institutions has caused many of the boys to turn to the gang for satisfaction. Boys who appear to be making a good adjustment in school succumb to the pressure of their peers to participate in delinquent acts.

Their acceptance of the standards of the gang finds expression in exaggerated hair styles and mannerisms, and their willingness to commit antisocial acts rather than be thought of as lacking in courage.

An examination of psychological records revealed that about 65 per cent of the boys had been recommended for psychiatric evaluation because of emotional problems. Many boys are unable to secure this needed help because of the limited facilities available to them. Furthermore, most clinics are reluctant to invest their already overtaxed resources in cases that are, at best, not promising.

The absence of parents who are willing and able to utilize the services of Child Study Clinics prevents the boys from getting help.

Most of the boys have developed a negative self-concept. Those who have been unable to gain status through legitimate means turn to deviant behavior to bolster their ego. The absence of worthy models also hampers the development of a positive self-image.

A DESCRIPTION OF THE O.V. CATTO PROGRAM AND ITS OBJECTIVES

The objective of the Catto School is to help the boys become socially and emotionally adjusted so that they can return to regular school or enter the world of work and, concomitantly, to help them develop as much proficiency in the basic skills as their abilities will permit.

For some boys, the shop program is a part of their general education. They are taught the care and use of tools, safety habits when working with machinery, etc. For other boys the shop emphasis is more vocational in nature. That is, the teacher seeks to develop saleable skills as a result of shop experiences. The following shop courses are offered:

1. Shoe Service and Leather Crafts

2. Art Shop - Sign painting, silk screen process, mechanical drawing, etc.

3. Tailoring - Power machine operating, steam pressing, hat blocking, alterations, and garment making

4. Restaurant Practice - Short order cooking, serving, menu planning, and other related skills

5. Gasoline Station Salesman - Lubrication, minor motor repairs, tire work, car care, and cleaning

6. Wood Shop - Use of power and hand tools, furniture refinishing

The academic program emphasizes remediation and includes social studies, mathematics, science, language arts, health and physical education, remedial reading and music.

The boys are grouped on the basis of chronological age and their vocational interests. Classes are small (15) and the pupils are able to receive individual attention.

The work-program provides the opportunity for boys to earn money and to experience the dignity and self-esteem that flow from honest toil. For some boys, this is the first time that they have learned that their services are valued. They soon discover that the service of experienced and skilled workers is more highly rewarded. They are, therefore, encouraged to stay in school. Some of the boys are employed in the Federally funded programs while others work on jobs located by the work-coordinators. They are supervised and are required to take the occupational practices course, which is designed to help them succeed on the job. They are also given help with money management in the occupational practices class.

Prevocational evaluation programs, which are financed by the Bureau of Vocational Rehabilitation, expose the boys to a variety of work experiences in a trade school and a nearby hospital.

Special projects are initiated to supplement the school's program. The Catto-University of Pennsylvania Reading Project is an example. Eighteen volunteers, after receiving thorough training and orientation, "contract" to tutor two boys each for a period of eighteen weeks. The results to date indicate that the boys are improving in their reading; but, more importantly, the close relationship between the boys, who have often experienced rejection, and an interested college student has contributed to a positive change in attitude on the part of the boys.

A $20,000 grant from a private foundation will enable the school and the Child Study Center to provide psychiatric service for the boys who have not heretofore been able to get this help.

The recently opened O. V. Catto Community Evening Extension Center has enabled the school to provide training to residents of the community, parents of the boys, and selected pupils. This project has had a salutary effect on the attitudes of the parents and the community toward the school.

The approval of a proposal to operate the school in the summer gives assurance that boys will be able to receive the support of the school during a period when many who are left on their own get into difficulty.

A project to improve the language facility of problem boys through a cultural enrichment program has been developed with the University of Pennsylvania.

THE NEEDS OF THE DISADVANTAGED THAT MUST BE MET BY THE SCHOOL IF THE SCHOOL IS GOING TO BE SUCCESSFUL

It has been pointed out that many of the pupils who come to Catto have experienced lack of affection and understanding, major family problems, lack of appropriate outlets for their energies, and limited success in school.

Some of the boys have met with the extremes of inordinate harshness or calloused indifference as they sought to gain recognition through a variety of means, both acceptable and unacceptable. In some cases, instead of sympathetic guidance, offenders are unceremoniously dismissed from the regular school. Thus, the children who need the help of regular school most are rejected, and the school, which is the one agency that is in continuous contact with all children, misses an opportunity to contribute significantly to the growth and adjustment of the problem child. The tendency of schools to relieve themselves of the inadaptive pupil is supported by those who cry for harsher punishment and stiffer penalties for offenders. This approach only deals with symptoms and may be damaging to the underlying causes of the deviant behavior. Therefore, whatever program is devised to help the disadvantaged child must take place in a climate that is supporting rather than oppressing, and accepting rather than rejecting.

Many boys who have been sent to Catto, as a result of their experience, have come to view themselves as unworthy. Some have yielded to the subculture of the gang to find the esteem that was denied them in school and in the community. Some boys have selected unworthy models and have identified the symbols of success (flashy car, fancy suits, money) as all important without regard to how they have been acquired. Other boys have sought comfort through an unrealistic appraisal of their capabilities. Some boys have been overwhelmed by failure and cease to aspire. They are numbed by a sense of powerlessness and appear to be utterly unmotivated. Others strike out at society and authority figures, which they have come to identify as their enemies, and thus fear, hostility, and hate are converted into aggressive behavior.

The Need to Develop a Positive Self-Image: The school must deal successfully with the problem of helping the boys develop a view of self that is positive. The therapeutic climate of the Catto School contributes to accomplishing this. Everyone connected with the school - teachers, counselors, custodian, cafeteria workers, secretarial staff - realizes that the manner in which he performs his job has a direct bearing on how effective the school will be in achieving its objectives. There have been cases where the sympathetic understanding of the head dietician or another member of the staff has contributed most significantly to the adjustment of a boy. This climate is established through staff development programs in which consultants are utilized. The case study approach contributes to sensitizing staff personnel to the needs of the pupils and increases their ability to view children as unique individuals.

A schoolwide program to give the boys as many legitimate opportunities to gain a feeling of status contributes to building a view of self that is acceptable. This includes proper utilization of bulletin boards, assembly programs, awards convocation, honors day, etc. Each person is urged to examine his interaction with the pupils, and to avoid actions and words that tend to diminish a boy's self-esteem.

The faculty plans programs that are designed to help the pupils through a process of identity change. The boys are helped to select the identity features that need to be changed. These might be exaggerated styles and mannerisms, faulty speech patterns, public conduct, anti-intellectualism, etc. The boys are helped to see sense in making the change. This may be related to job opportunities, return to regular school, participation in special projects, etc.

The teachers and other staff personnel are helped to understand the importance of their role as hero models. The boys are given opportunities to make commitment to the new style of behaving through assembly programs. Teachers and others lend sympathetic support as they try to gain command of the new way of conducting themselves. Former pupils who have been successful return to lend their support to the program. Men from business and industry contribute their support through participation in career conferences and workshops. Everything that takes place in the school is measured against the criterion: Does this contribute toward helping the boy construct a positive self-image?

The Need to Convert Potential Intelligence into Operational Intelligence: It has been pointed out that the boys at Catto in many cases are pseudo retarded. A major contributing factor to this is their lack of school success. Many have interpreted their failure to learn as an innate inability to learn. To combat this, teachers are encouraged to plan a program that will at least maintain a balance between success and failure. This implies that the practice of placing social studies books that are written for capable 9th grade pupils in the hands of boys reading with difficulty at the 3rd grade level must be eliminated. The teacher is called upon to prepare materials suited to the interest and reading levels of the pupils. The teacher is assisted in discovering materials that have been especially prepared to fit this need. Another factor is the problem of making the curriculum relevant to the learners. This does not mean watering down the course offerings or letting the boys pass without really learning the material. It does mean examining the present achievement level of the boy and being creative in providing experiences that will lead him to the next level.

All teachers must recognize their responsibility for helping to strengthen the weakest link in the school skills of disadvantaged children—the language arts. Through staff development programs, shop teachers, counselors, secretaries, and others must be led to see specific ways they can help children improve their ability to listen, speak, read, and write.

Occupational classes must always retain the flexibility for children to move back into the regular educational stream after they have been stimulated and motivated to aspire toward higher goals.

Need to Utilize Available Resources: It is recognized that the disadvantaged child comes from multiproblem families. Some of the problems of Catto boys have their roots in the home, community, the school, the individual, and elsewhere. As in all human behavior, the causes are multiple and complex. The school working alone as an agent of change can seldom be entirely successful. Through counseling and the alertness of the staff, specific problems of the boys must be identified. One of the problems of disadvantaged families is their inability to use appropriate agencies in the most effective manner. Another aspect of this problem is the tendency of some families to develop the questionable skill of "conning" a living out of welfare agencies. The school has a role in coordinating and mobilizing available resources so that maximum benefit will accrue to the children under its care. It is recognized that the school can dissipate its energies in reaching too far beyond its primary responsibilities; but the school, which deals just with the child, views its task with myopic vision by considering only one aspect of the problem.

PERSONAL CHARACTERISTICS THAT TEACHERS OF DISADVANTAGED YOUTH SHOULD POSSESS

The teacher in the disciplinary school must possess certain personal characteristics if he is to be effective in contributing to the adjustment of problem boys. At Catto it is recognized that inadaptive school behavior is only partly the result of the attitude of the pupil. Of equal importance is the attitude of the teacher toward the pupil he is trying to help. There should be an acceptance of the boy with no prerequisite that he must be "good" to be acceptable. Children see through this superficiality and often reject the individual and the help he is offering, or they may play the "game" by pretending to measure up to what is expected of them.

The successful teacher at Catto manifests some of the following personal qualities:

1. Personality that permits him to deal with nonconforming behavior without damaging physical or psychological punitive measures.

    In a treatment program, the boys must learn the lesson of accountability. There is, however, no place for vengeance or brutality. The necessity to punish at times is not questioned, nor is the need for authority which has this power challenged. The notion that punishment by itself is a sufficient approach to helping problem boys is rejected. This approach must yield to more constructive approaches. It is well known that coercive and repressive measures often turn the offender into more serious deviant behavior.

2. Disposition that permits continued support of the boy in spite of failures and obstacles.

    Although the teacher is optimistic about the boys' potential for growth, he should not become discouraged if progress is slow, or, indeed, if his most promising prospect becomes involved in serious difficulty with the police.

    The thrust of the teacher's effort should be to help the boys discover and develop their strengths while diminishing those characteristics which tend to be degrading and detrimental. In this effort the successful teacher realizes that he is competing with a host of negative influences that are pulling the boy in a number of directions.

    When confronted with apparent failure, the effective teacher continues his effort without diminution of enthusiasm—free of feelings of guilt or frustration.

3. Possession of a warm stable personality.

    Disadvantaged pupils need the reassurance of a warm personality. The impersonal nature of large schools in the big cities makes this imperative. They need teachers who can accept their shortcomings with equanimity. They need teachers who are capable of establishing a climate in which boys can develop what is a serious deficiency in most of them — self-esteem.

4. Possession of worth and ideals and values that are in consonance with the objectives of the school.

    The importance of the teacher as a model has already been pointed out. However, it would be difficult to place too much stress upon this point. Much of what we wish to teach nonconforming youth is "caught" rather than "taught." Pupils are quick to identify discrepancies between practices and precepts.

SKILLS, KNOWLEDGE, AND UNDERSTANDING NEEDED BY TEACHERS OF DISADVANTAGED YOUTH

The teacher of Catto boys must have a thorough knowledge of child growth and development. He should be able to assess child behavior objectively and gain some insight into the problems confronting the pupils. He should be growing in his ability to ferret out the causes of deviant behavior. His knowledge of child growth and development should help him see each child as unique and of surpassing worth. This view should inspire the teacher to utilize all the resources at his command to help each child reach his full potential.

The teacher of disadvantaged boys should have knowledge of the conditions under which learning takes place best and most abundantly. This means that he is aware of the cognitive styles of the learner, and is able to translate into practice the dictums of the theoretician. He knows how to capitalize upon his pupils' physical style of learning. His instructional procedures reflect his awareness of the importance of beginning with the concrete before moving to higher levels of abstract thinking. His classroom is a rich learning laboratory pregnant with possibilities for pupils to discover answers to their questions through their own activities.

The teacher of disadvantaged children should understand the environmental factors that contribute to the problems of disadvantaged youth. He must know that the slum is a profound educational institution that operates twenty-four hours a day. The many negative influences of the depressed community seek recruits for the evergrowing army of delinquents among the school failures—the undereducated, the poorly trained, the alienated, and the rejected. The successful teacher is able to identify the positive and negative factors in the community, and guides his pupils accordingly.

SUMMARY

The O. V. Catto School serves pupils who have been assigned because of behavior problems. The school helps its boys to develop the inner controls that will enable them to function effectively in the regular school or the world of work. This is accomplished through a program that includes industrial arts, vocational education, academic subjects, and a variety of supplementary projects.

The boys served by the school have evidenced a need of help in achieving academic proficiency. This is related to their need of developing a positive self-image.

The successful teacher of Catto boys must have a sympathetic understanding of their problems. He knows how they grow and develop and is aware of the conditions under which they learn best.

By being a warm, stable person, the teacher of disadvantaged youth should, at least, give the child a sense of his own worth; and yet, this may be the most that a teacher can give.

THE PROJECT BEACON TRAINING PROGRAM OF THE FERKAUF GRADUATE SCHOOL OF EDUCATION, YESHIVA UNIVERSITY

JULIAN ROBERTS
DOXEY A. WILKERSON

YESHIVA UNIVERSITY

The concerns of this conference for "The Development of a Master Teacher Training Curriculum for Teachers of Occupational Level Training Programs" differ in many respects from those of the Ferkauf Graduate School of Education in developing a program to prepare teachers for depressed-area elementary schools; but we probably share in common many of the problems of teacher-education which are involved in both projects. Perhaps a description of our problems and approaches will be suggestive for your work.

It should be noted at the outset that our "Project Beacon" is a long-range program addressed to many aspects of the education of socially disadvantaged children. It involves a variety of research and evaluation projects, extended training programs and short-time institutes, pre-service programs and in-service programs, information retrieval and dissemination, annual invitational conferences, demonstration programs in selected schools on different levels, and others. It is a comprehensive program now in its third year of development. Some of its projects are well under way; others are just beginning; and others are still "gleams in the eye." The purpose of the whole is to help advance theory and practice in the education of socially disadvantaged children, and thereby to make some contributions to the improvement of education for all children. It reflects the deep commitment of our faculty in this field.

The personnel-training aspects of Project Beacon are broader than the preparation of teachers. Programs are under way to prepare school psychologists, guidance specialists, administrators, and supervisors, as well as teachers—all for work in depressed-area schools and other agencies. The focus of this paper is on our pre-service program to prepare teachers for urban slum schools—what we call our Project Beacon Training Program. Interpretation is made of (1) some of the underlying premises of this program, (2) approaches and problems with the theoretical studies required of students, (3) approaches and problems with the internship experiences provided for students, and (4) approaches and problems involved in evaluating the program.

PREMISES AND GOALS

The very recent and now burgeoning movement in our profession to improve the education of socially disadvantaged children has articulated a wide range of sometimes conflicting perceptions and guiding principles; and it may be advisable briefly to outline some of the premises which define our point of view in the Project Beacon Training Program. They are here asserted—somewhat ex cathedra—as general propositions, without elaboration or argument.

First, lower-class and minority-group children in urban slums, among whom what we call the "socially disadvantaged" predominate, are characterized by a wide range of individual differences—in self-concept, motivation, general conduct and academic performance; and to perceive them as a homogeneous group is to think in terms of a harmful stereotype.

Second, the academic retardation and deviant interpersonal behavior commonly observed among socially disadvantaged children are functions of social conditioning, not of biological inheritance. Moreover, in addition to the negative cultural influences generally associated with poverty and discrimination in the home and community, negative influences in the school, itself, contribute substantially to impede normative academic performance among socially disadvantaged children.

Third, the academic and related handicap common among socially disadvantaged children can be minimized, if not fully overcome, through appropriate curricular experiences.

Fourth, in order to develop such appropriate curricular experiences with disadvantaged children, teachers need to be equipped with special theoretical insights, attitudes, and classroom skills relevant to the special learning problems involved.

Fifth, the special professional equipment required for effective work with disadvantaged children can be developed by teachers and prospective teachers through an integrated program of relevant theoretical studies and guided field experience.

Sixth, on the pre-service level, liberal arts college graduates with good academic records and who evidence genuine interest in working in depressed-area schools are generally good prospects for participation in a teacher education program oriented toward improved school experiences for disadvantaged children.

We are not unaware that most of these propositions are yet to be firmly validated by empirical evidence, and that some of them are the subjects of current debates in the profession. Suffice it here to note that we do not perceive the Project Beacon Training Program as one in which we provide "the answers" to the many complex questions involved in the education of disadvantaged children, but rather as an effort at discovery and trial. We describe it as "an experimental teacher-education program which seeks, through problem-solving and tested laboratory experience, to discover and develop effective approaches to promoting the emotional and cognitive growth of socially disadvantaged children." The premises outlined above define the major guide-lines of our approach to this task of discovery and development.

The objectives of the program reflect the general point of view here defined. They are:

1. Understanding of the biological, social, and psychological forces which shape human development and learning in general, and of the special influences affecting the development and learning of disadvantaged children and youth.
2. Understanding of community organization and process in general, and as reflected in depressed-area urban communities.
3. Understanding of modern principles of curriculum development and teaching methods, and of adaptations required for the effective guidance of learning by socially disadvantaged children and youth.
4. Skill in classroom instruction and management in depressed-area schools.
5. Empathy with socially disadvantaged people and ability to interact with them effectively for the attainment of worthy school and community goals.
6. Readiness and ability to use techniques of educational research in approaching problems in the education of disadvantaged youth.
7. Abiding commitment to professional service in depressed-area urban schools.

Let us now proceed to an analysis of the theoretical studies and internship experiences through which we seek to implement these principles and realize these objectives.

THEORETICAL STUDIES AT THE UNIVERSITY

Students in the program are required to earn 36 semester-hours of credit in courses, seminars, and internship over a period of one (4 weeks) summer term and two semesters. Completion of the program qualifies students for the degree of Master of Science in Education, and satisfies New York State certification requirements for the elementary grades.

Students in the initial 1963-64 program were required to prepare a thesis; but this requirement proved to be incompatible with the heavy course-and-internship load students had to carry, and was subsequently abandoned. The research experience which the thesis requirement was designed to give is currently provided, in part, by a series of investigative reports required in the year-long Internship Seminar.

The theoretical studies currently required of students consist of ten 3-hour courses in the psychological and historical foundations of education, in teaching methods, and in seminars associated with internship. Their titles, along with those of the two 3-hour internship courses, are listed by related groups below:

Child Development and Learning
Educational Psychology
Social Psychology of Education

History of Educational Thought

Teaching Language Arts, Elementary N-6
Teaching Social Studies, Elementary N-6
Teaching Mathematics, Elementary N-6
Science for Elementary Schools N-6

Internship (Fall)
Internship Seminar (Fall)
Student Teaching in Grades N-6 (Spring)
Internship Seminar (Spring)

Our continuing evaluation of the program (by procedures subsequently described) has revealed serious inadequacies in this program of theoretical studies.

Most of the inadequacies stem from the organization of theoretical studies around specific course requirements for certification by the New York State Education Department. Some of them reflect weaknesses in our internal procedures. In any case, major correctives are clearly indicated; and we have agreed upon a reorganization, beginning in 1966-67, which we think will greatly improve the theoretical studies of the Project Beacon Training Program. You may find useful a description of what it involves.

We plan (1) to structure all theoretical studies of "Beacon" students in three broad seminars conducted exclusively for them—in the general fields of psychology, sociology, and curriculum and instruction; (2) to have teachers of the latter two seminars supervise students' concurrent internship experiences during the fall and spring semesters, respectively; and (3) to supplement the theoretical work of the regular seminars with a series of Special Seminars and All-Day Workshops, in which students interact with outstanding scholars and practitioners in the field of compensatory education.

INTERNSHIP IN THE FIELD

If there is anything distinctive about our Project Beacon Training Program, aside from the ideological bias previously defined, it is to be found in the full academic year of internship experiences required of all students, particularly that part which involves them in interaction with the people and institutions of a slum neighborhood. Underlying this internship program, of course, are certain assumptions, the validity of which is attested only by informal evidence; and it may be helpful to define them at the outset.

First, it is assumed that effectiveness in classroom teaching and management in a slum school is enhanced by firsthand acquaintance with the home and community environment in which disadvantaged children are socialized. Information and insights gained from the literature of poverty are likely to be deepened and made more functional by a variety of direct experiences with the people, social institutions and organizations in a depressed neighborhood.

Second, it is assumed that pre-existing democratic values and wholesome attitudes toward lower-class populations tend, with such direct experience, to develop into genuine empathy. There is an important difference between positive attitudes toward socially disadvantaged people, and that fuller understanding which, on the basis of knowing individuals and families, enables one to project his own personality into theirs, to share in their perceptions and feelings and motives.

Third, it is assumed that extended and varied student teaching in a slum school—even where the quality of the educational program is less than superior—can serve to extend and integrate professional theory and knowledge, to crystallize values and attitudes, and to begin the development of instructional and management skills which are essential for effective performance in depressed-area schools.

Fourth, it is assumed that some internship experience with depressed-area schools which are functioning on a high level of quality—at least through observation—is essential in order to help define realizable standards of professional competence and to place one's own student teaching experiences in perspective.

It is perhaps unnecessary for us to add that we do not assume that the values here outlined will emerge automatically from internship experience in lower-class neighborhoods and schools. On the contrary, we know their realization depends in large measure upon appropriate guidance by University personnel—in the course of day-to-day supervision in the field, and in study concurrent and discussion in the Internship Seminar.

Let us now proceed to brief descriptions of and evaluative comments on the internship experiences provided this year for students in the Project Beacon Training Program.

Internship in the Neighborhoods—Fall Semester: Internship experiences in a slum neighborhood are concentrated in the fall semester, and are conducted mainly through agencies of Mobilization for Youth. MFY, as you probably know, is a comprehensive demonstration program directed toward the control of delinquency on Manhattan's Lower East Side. Currently its population is approximately 33 per cent Puerto Rican and 10 per cent Negro, the remainder consisting of varied ethnic groups—Jews, Chinese, Italians, and others. It is an area of slum tenements and low-income housing projects, widespread poverty, and the whole range of social pathology usually associated with these conditions.

Throughout the fall semester "Beacon" students are assigned to work in the following MFY activities and programs in this area, partly in the schools, but mainly in non-school situations.

1. Lecture-discussions conducted by MFY personnel—on the programs of Mobilization for Youth, the Puerto Rican Community, the Negro Community, the Prevailing Pattern of Poverty (based upon MFY interviews) Community Organization, Strategy for Institutional Change, and the MFY Program of Research and Evaluation.

2. Neighborhood Service Centers—interviewing families in their homes; helping process clients at the centers; accompanying social workers in casework, involving contacts with police, courts, housing, and welfare authorities.

3. Homework Helper Program—after-school tutoring of elementary pupils on a one-to-one basis; walking pupils home after the tutoring sessions.

4. Higher Education Program—tutoring disadvantaged freshman college students on a one-to-one basis, students admitted junior college on a trial basis despite deficiencies in their high school records.

5. Mobilization Reading Program—assisting Mobilization Reading Teachers assigned to local elementary schools for diagnosis and remedy of special reading problems among pupils.

Other fall term internship experiences include: (1) observation in one elementary school classroom for the first six weeks of the term, beginning the first day of school; (2) an informal session with leaders of the Negro Action Group (NAG), which is active in pressing for school improvement in the area; and (3) a field trip to visit the experimental nursery schools conducted in depressed-area schools by the Institute of Developmental Studies.

Internship in the Schools—Spring Semester: As has been noted, interns are provided limited experiences in public school programs in the fall semester—mainly through observations during the first six weeks of the term and through work with Mobilization Reading Teachers. In the spring semester, they are assigned to full-time student teaching (or guidance work) in schools in the MFY area.

Although the time which "Beacon" interns devote to student teaching—all day, five days a week for 17 weeks—exceeds by far that which prevails among other pre-service programs, the general pattern of the student teaching experience is fairly conventional—except, perhaps that it is restricted to depressed-area schools. It involves a period of observation and limited participation in the classroom, followed by the occasional teaching of single lessons and more frequent small group instruction, and, in time, by all-day responsibility for the class. The pace at which an intern proceeds through these stages depends upon his own rate of development and the perceptions and preferences of the cooperating teacher.

On at least one occasion during the spring semester, interns go together on an all-day field trip to visit schools where outstanding work is being done with socially disadvantaged children. Last spring the students visited classes in Greenburgh School District #8, at Hartsdale, New York. The experience was so valuable that it is to be repeated this spring.

Internship Seminar—Fall and Spring Semesters: As the program is currently organized, interns meet once a week throughout the year in a seminar conducted by the Director. This Internship Seminar undertakes to serve two interrelated purposes, with differing emphases during the fall and spring semesters.

One general purpose is to develop further the students' theoretical understanding of selected problems and issues involved in the education of socially disadvantaged children. During the fall semester, emphasis is placed on the impact of social disadvantage upon learning and on school-community relations in slum areas. During the spring semester, emphasis is placed on special problems in guiding learning and in classroom management in depressed-area schools, and also on aspects of curriculum development. Procedures during both semesters consist mainly of the preparation, presentation, and discussion of investigative reports by individual students and committees. There are also four or five guest lecturers during the academic year.

The other general purpose is to help students interpret their concurrent internship experiences in the light of relevant theory. Emphases vary with the content of those experiences. The main procedure is informal discussion.

APPROACHES TO EVALUATION

The general purpose of the program is to equip prospective teachers and other professional personnel for effective service in depressed-area urban schools. Two relevant evaluative criteria, therefore, are (1) the extent to which graduates of the program obtain positions in such schools, and (2) the quality of their performances as professionals in the schools where they are employed. Another important criterion is (3) the assessment of students' performance by their classroom teachers and internship supervisors, especially the latters. Still another criterion, probably the most significant of them all, is (4) the appraisal by "Beacon" trainees of their experiences in the program—as perceived during the period of training, and as perceived during the first year of professional employment.

The procedures by which we now assemble data relevant to these several criteria are the following:

1. Job-placement—questionnaires to graduates, supplemented by direct contacts.

2. Quality of graduates' performance on the job—questionnaires to supervisors in the schools where graduates are employed.

3a. Assessments of trainees' performance by classroom teachers—compilation of grades reported to the Registrar; also (beginning this year) rating scales executed by teachers, plus supplementary comments.

3b. Assessments of trainees' performance by internship supervisors—rating scales executed by persons directly in charge of the several internship programs, plus supplementary comments; administered at the end of internship in each program.

4a. Appraisals by interns of their classroom and internship experiences during the program—questionnaires at the end of the fall and spring semesters.

4b. Appraisals by interns of their experiences in the program after graduation—questionnaires to graduates, supplemented by occasional and informal direct contacts.

An additional procedure planned for subsequent evaluations is to bring graduates of the program to the campus periodically during the first year of employment; to have them record on tape "critical incidents" which reveal strengths and weaknesses in their professional preparation; and to participate with faculty members in retrospective appraisal of their experiences in the training program.

Another innovation planned for subsequent evaluations is to have faculty members observe graduates of the program in their classrooms, recording selected behaviors and judgments on a carefully devised observation schedule.

Still another evaluative innovation being considered is that of administering a social values test (e. g. , that developed by Dr. Henry Meyers at the University of Michigan) to trainees when they enter the program and at the end of their internship in the schools. We are interested in testing the hypothesis that one's general social outlook is significantly related to his effectiveness as a teacher of socially disadvantaged children.

MANPOWER DEVELOPMENT TRAINING-ROCHESTER STYLE

PAUL K.W. SPRINGER

ROCHESTER SCHOOL SYSTEM

From the vantage point of middle-class society it is most difficult to observe with any degree of validity the problems of our disadvantaged, for we have not "worn their shoes." Perhaps, too, when the vast sea presents so unruffled an appearance, we are not apt to see the wind puffs which here and there stir the surface, or, we may, as with a pesky insect, fan it away hoping the irritant will disappear.

Behind the portrait of Rochester the City there is yet another portrait distinguishable by soft winds which now and then stir the surface:

1. The Dropout Problem - Approximately 900 students (6 per cent) drop from Rochester's schools during a single academic year. The indication is that although the proportion of dropouts may be decreasing, the total number is rising due to population increase. In a decade this means there are some 9,000 youth who have failed to complete traditional school programs.

2. Influx of Southern Negro - In the decade 1950-1960, Rochester's nonwhite population rose 208.8 per cent. This was the highest of any community in New York State.

The increase of the nonwhite population has been largely Southern Negro. Significant numbers of nonwhite population have immigrated from Puerto Rico and Cuba. Both the Puerto Rican and Cuban nationals usually present a lingual problem. The Bureau of Municipal Research identifies 54 per cent of our nonwhite population as being born outside the State of New York.

3. Youth Unemployment - Rochester's overall unemployment rate has varied from 1.3-2.0 per cent. If, however, we separate the unemployed by age groups, we find that the 17-21 year old group has a 13 per cent unemployment rate. The unemployment rate for the nonwhite teenager is almost double that of the white teenager. At the present time it is about 28 per cent.

It is this background of unemployment and undereducation which fed the pool of youth walking our streets.

In September, 1963, a group of executive leaders in the area of Youth Service in Rochester went to a neighboring city, Syracuse, where they could be free of business pressure, telephones, secretaries and wives, to brainstorm youth's problems. As one of the outcomes of this seminar the Rochester Umbrella Manpower Training Project for Youth was born. It was to focus on the disadvantaged, the unemployed, the undereducated youth of Greater Rochester. The aim—to get them off the street and into entry jobs.

In reality, there was to be a considerable time lapse before the Youth Program could be implemented. The planning of the complex project began in November, 1963. It was not until April, 1964, that the project obtained Federal approval. It was not until June 9, 1964, that funds in the amount of $1,487,847.00 were actually released to fund the project. In this frame of reference it is important to point out that the Rochester Manpower Center began operation on July 6, 1964, with minimum staff, equipment, and supplies because of the pressure of time. It is also significant to point out that just less than three weeks later, on July 24, 1964, our racial disturbance began. Our Manpower program was thus time-oriented to play a significant role in a community attempting to put the pieces back together again.

The Rochester Multi-occupational Manpower Project for Youth makes provision for the training of 1,000 youth in seven broad vocational areas or job families. There are thirty-two specific occupations which subtend these broad areas.

Youth are referred to the Training Center weekly by the New York State Employment service. In most cases the referral is made to a broad area which has been predetermined through testing and interview activities by the New York State Employment Service. On arrival the trainee is placed under the direct control of a Broad Training instructor. A significant portion of the activities during the first week will, however, be focused around the Manpower Counselor with whom the trainee will relate during his stay at the Center.

Beginning the first week and continuing for as long as it is necessary the trainee is involved in a prevocational program. This prevocational phase, for which the Broad Area instructor has prime responsibility, works to develop a knowledge within each trainee of what his particular choice of job family is like, what its possibilities are, what its specific requirements are. The trainee has an opportunity to get some vocational experience in the job family. The trainee is thus working to determine whether he is adapted to and challenged by the opportunities of the job family. The instructor is at the same time interested in determining the probable capability of each trainee. During this stage the counselor also plays a part. If there are problems or doubts the trainee-instructor-counselor relationship makes it possible for the trainee to apply for a change to another job family which seems a more realistic choice.

At some time before the trainee can leave the prevocational phase, a decision must be made that the area chosen is one in which the trainee has a reasonable chance for success. Obviously, if a girl has third grade reading ability it would be rather unwise to agree to stenographer training. Working as a team, the instructor, the counselor, and, on occasion, the psychologist must help the trainee develop an understanding so that he may begin training at a point commensurate with his ability to achieve. Aspiration must also be developed so that the trainee will accept remedial education. By so doing the trainee gives evidence of acceptance that lack of educational factors will limit later success.

The Manpower Center feels strongly in the right of the individual to fail. While the team will do its best to ensure realistic choices, the decision will always be made in the trainees' favor. If, in fact, the trainee does fail in his selected vocational goal it will be used as a part of the vocational counseling program for each trainee. The remarkable point is that a significant number who have made choices above their apparent capacity do not fail. The high aspiration factor allows them to succeed.

Since many of our trainees have educational lack, basic education and remedial education are extremely important. While we are aware that education has been an unpleasant experience for many, we feel that basic and remedial education must be provided to bring the trainee up to minimum educational competence so as to function adequately in his or her vocational area. For this same reason High School Equivalency is also offered. There is this difference. High School Equivalency is not forced. It must come as an outcome of guidance and counseling. We feel that the decision to take on this program falls within the aspiration development function of counselors with their trainees.

We can summarize the program as being a rather sophisticated vocational experience with supporting services, and one which also places great emphasis on the work of a counseling team.

Perhaps it will be easier to understand the plan and its objectives if we could look at a cross section of the youth who come to the Manpower Center.

Without researching the two populations, efforts to set forth a list of significant characteristics which would serve to distinguish Manpower trainees from pupils of a typical urban high school would be almost fruitless. Even the fact that our point of emphasis is on the "disadvantaged" youth cannot limit the strong similarity which still exists between these two groups. The term "disadvantaged," as the counseling team views it, has reference to many conditions in which one has shortcomings. A person may be economically disadvantaged, geographically disadvantaged, etc. Operating from this frame of reference it appears to be on sound ground that our Manpower trainees tend to be disadvantaged only in terms of degree and not condition. If we follow this line of thought perhaps more Manpower trainees experience more acute financial difficulties. There is a greater incidence of unwed mothers. There is a greater number on probation from the courts. There are more academic deficiencies. There are more short-term and more unrealistic goals. There are many who tend to manifest attitudes and behaviors which are unrewarded by society.

Our experience shows that these trainees need acceptance. Most of them perform better in vocational and related basic education areas than test scores would tend to predict. Many need to be freed at first from direct challenges which would demand an absolute and correct answer, attitude, or approach. A significant number feel out of their natural environment and are very uncomfortable at first. Immaturity is a common attribute. There is a tendency to tardiness and absence in the initial phases. Many refuse to accept responsibility.

On the other side of the ledger, it may be offered that Manpower trainees appear to have a stronger desire to improve their occupational and educational status and have benefited to a degree from the lessons of life, which on many occasions they have experienced during the interim between school departure and Manpower entry.

A further description of the enrollment would need to indicate that the IQ levels run the gamut from the sixties to the one hundred and thirties. Roughly, one quarter are high school graduates or equivalency graduates by the end of their training period. The trainee enrollment is approximately fifty per cent male and fifty per cent female. The trainee population is approximately fifty per cent white and fifty per cent nonwhite—mainly Negroes with a few Puerto Ricans. The Negro enrollment percentage is increasing.

The identification of needs for these trainees is approached with the same reservation as was felt when enumerating their distinguishing characteristics. This reluctance is not to diminish the efficacy and wisdom of attempting to know the individual better with whom the team will work. The concern is that we shall not foster a skewed picture as is often envisoned of the school dropout. He has been analyzed, dichotomized, and editorialized. These efforts are too often approached from without. We feel a strong need, which seems to have been met by the Manpower Center, to listen to this youth in order to realize what he is saying, what he feels and wishes for himself. This then is seeing the trainee from within. A popular adage is echoed by a Rochester Manpower Administrator, "A mind convinced against its will is a mind uncommitted still."

These young people manifest a need to have someone genuinely interested in them. As one trainee put it, "To care enough to give me hell."

Many have a history of failure. Their need is for success —actually on a day-by-day basis. The desire to postpone rewards, e.g., a four-year apprenticeship, is anathema to many.

The need to see the relevance of any instruction, vocational or academic, or any admonition regarding punctuality, grooming, attitudes with others is keen among these trainees. The style of the training center differs from the traditional school for this major reason. The entire concept at the Manpower Center is on-the-job, not at-school; training hours, not class hours; instructors, not teachers; applied mathematics, not Mathematics I; communication skills, not English II.

The attributes of an "ideal teacher" possibly should not vary much whether the practitioner is involved with the disadvantaged or with traditional groups of youth. This statement is based on the premise that if an instructor has competence in his subject area, the "ideal" will do the best work in whatever environment he is placed. It must be noted that an instructor with less than ideal characteristics begins to show the limitations of his effectiveness quite quickly when he works with the disadvantaged.

There are some guide lines, however, which we feel are important in dealing with youth at the Manpower Center:

1. Must be able to communicate at the trainee level
2. Must understand the environment and conditions of deprivation and poverty
3. Must believe in the value of the Manpower program
4. Must have a knowledge of employment and trends in his vocational area
5. Must be able to relate all facets of his teaching to the world of work
   a) Necessity for related mathematics, reading, and communication skills
   b) Necessity to teach for transfer of skills within a family of occupations

6. Must have a knowledge of the cultural and emotional framework which directs the attitudes of his trainees.

7. Must have a vital interest in and adequate knowledge of his own role in the total counseling process.

Perhaps as good a way to summarize the "ideal" instructor to work with disadvantaged youth is to say that he must possess a high degree of flexibility. He must be a study in contrasts for he must be loose but firm; patient but persistent; able to teach and be taught; a friend and a foreman; empathetic but not sympathetic.

It is not a simple process to evaluate a special program such as a Multi-occupational Manpower Project. As yet, we do not have the yardstick with which to measure. We do have facts and impressions which lead us to believe that we have been successful.

The Manpower Center worked with 1,450 young people during the 1964-65 year. Ninety per cent of these were school dropouts. Seventy-four per cent of those enrolling completed the training program for which they registered. Seventy per cent of those finishing training actually entered the labor market.

We have seen these young people enter the Manpower Center. We have seen them arrive nondescript, insecure, pessimistic, dejected, angry, undereducated, and without marketable skills. We have seen youth come to the realization that Manpower Training is a chance for success, perhaps their last chance. We have seen them blossom in the joy of their own success. We have also seen them enter society as gainfully employed workers.

As practitioners, we have learned that there is excellent potential in the Multi-occupational Manpower Project with its focus on counseling and emphasis on meeting the needs of youth for employment. Youth responds positively to the atmosphere of opportunity with its aura of sensitized friendship.

Youth can be helped to help themselves!